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**ADAPTING THE CURRICULUM TO THE NEEDS
AND INTERESTS OF ADOLESCENTS**

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There is probably no statement about the curriculum of the secondary school with which educators so generally agree as they do with the principle that the high-school curriculum should be adapted to the needs and interests of the adolescent. When one considers, however, the many different proposals that are put forward to meet these needs and interests, one must conclude that what has been accepted as evidence of agreement with a principle represents more nearly a lack of agreement about its meaning. This paper represents an attempt to clarify the meaning of the terms *needs* and *interests* in order to indicate more clearly the implications of the above principle for curriculum development.

We shall consider the term *need* first. The first of its meanings to be pointed out is that which applies to the human being in its early infancy. The new-born infant has a need for food, a need for air, a need for exercise or movement, a need for relief of very definite physiological tensions connected with the acts of emptying the bladder or the colon. Such needs are physiological. They are quite impersonal as far as the infant is concerned, are not yet connected with the concept of selfhood, and of their existence the infant is not aware. These fundamental physiological needs along with a number of other fundamental needs persist throughout a long period of years, which constitute the life span of the individual. With the growth of the individual these fundamental needs are accompanied by a developing awareness that such needs exist and must in one way or another be satisfied if life is to continue. The manner in which these needs are conceived and, to a degree, the manner in which they are satisfied will depend upon the social environment in which the individual develops. Their satisfaction becomes a complex and interrelated affair of the individual and of the group in which he

has membership. The need for food, for example, becomes related to the matter of making a living, the need for air to the matter of ventilation and air conditioning, the need for sex to love and marriage and employment, the need for exercise to the provision of playgrounds and gymnasiums. In short, the fundamental physiological needs of the individual become the foundations of many other needs.

The manner in which these other needs are formed and the manner in which they are satisfied depend principally upon the influence of the group culture in which the individual happens to develop. They are socially conditioned needs that result in tensions within the individual comparable to the tensions more easily recognized in the case of physiological needs. Such needs as those of knowing, of possessing, of being considered a personality in one's own right, of dominating in certain situations and of following in others, of association with others, or the need of achieving are illustrations of needs that become conditioned in the process of interaction with environment which, of course, includes interaction with other human beings. The satisfaction of such needs as these (considered singly or more often considered as fused in varying combinations) comprises the main business of living. The manner in which such needs are satisfied is an important concern of the society that supports the school.

Just as soon as we introduce the idea that the group culture plays a part in the creation of the individual's needs, we also introduce a complicating factor in a consideration of need as a possible guide in curriculum development. The individual is not an entirely free agent to do as his fancy dictates. The group of which he becomes a member through its individual members also evidences an interest in the manner in which its newest member develops. The members of the group recognize the type of need exhibited when the newest member says, "I need," but they give voice to an added meaning of need when they say, "He needs" The first type of need is often in conflict with the second type. Adaptation to the group culture means that these conflicts should frequently be adjusted in accord with a vested interest that the larger group has in its own welfare. These two aspects of the meaning of need inhere in the use of the expression *needs of the adolescent*. A synthesis of these two aspects of the meaning of the term *need* is a positive essential to an understanding of the term in the principle referred to at the beginning of this discussion.

The foregoing discussion implies that in adapting the curriculum to the needs of the adolescent two extreme attempts will be ruled out of consideration immediately; first, an attempt to

allow the individual pupil to develop a curriculum as he pleases, and, second, an attempt to prescribe a curriculum entirely on the basis of what teachers conceive to be the needs of the large social group in which the pupil is obtaining membership. Just when shall the needs of the pupil or the needs of the social group take precedence? Or shall either take precedence? We shall attempt to indicate that a consideration of needs is not an all-or-none consideration.

In discussing the developing needs of the individual, it was pointed out that in the beginning the individual had no awareness of the kind of needs we were discussing. It was also pointed out that the individual became increasingly aware of their existence and that they became conditioned by the influence of the group in which the individual was gaining membership. With respect to the phase of the group culture that exerts an influence through an organized agency such as the school, it was intimated that the group imposed certain restrictions by predicated the existence of certain needs of the society supporting the school. The predication of social needs in directing youth in a high-school curriculum is an inescapable responsibility.

The repeated failure of the school to make a connection between the kinds of needs that are predicated for society and the needs of which pupils are aware is no valid reason for accepting a belief that only those needs of which the pupils themselves are aware should furnish the basis for a curriculum. There are at least two considerations to indicate that the needs of which pupils are aware will not afford the whole of a suitable basis. First, as indicated above in the case of infants, some needs have to be satisfied even though the individual is not aware that they exist or that they should be satisfied. Arriving at a state of awareness with respect to such needs is an evidence of growth. Second, some needs of which pupils are aware should not be satisfied because the results are inimical to both the individual and the social group of which he is, or is becoming, a member. In other words, some of the needs of which pupils are aware are worthy of development, and others are not.

It must be insisted, however, that refusal to base a curriculum entirely on needs of which the pupils are aware does not mean that teachers will refuse to relate as nearly as they can the needs of which pupils are aware to the needs which the teachers predicate for the society that supports the school, nor does it mean that teachers should refuse to examine critically the needs of society which they believe should be taken into account. Reference to one of the fundamental needs of human beings in the present social scene will make this point clearer. The youth of

a hundred years ago satisfied one of his fundamental human needs by early marriage. In the span of a hundred years the social scene has changed so drastically that at present marriage is generally out of the question when the mating urge is greatest. Marriage entails responsibilities for making a living and for rearing offspring. Under present economic conditions, there is no possibility that any considerable number of youth from eighteen to twenty-one years of age can make a living for a family. Marriage must, therefore, be postponed. Normal, natural youth is required to make adjustments that youth of one hundred years ago was not required to make. In many cases the characters who are held up to youth as the shining examples that youth should follow were actively engaged in public and private affairs at ages that modern youth can spend only in school or in idleness. Is it any wonder that the largest group of our prison population consists of youth nineteen and twenty years old? Does this fact indicate the necessity for relating more nearly the curriculum of the secondary school to the fundamental needs of the youth the secondary school ought to serve? Must youth always listen to the claim of the school that the needs of a badly disjointed society should continue to occupy their attention when no attention is given to the fundamental needs of millions of youth who will to-morrow constitute the most active part of society? It must be evident that there is nothing the school can do to overcome immediately social conditions which prevent the employment of youth eighteen to twenty-one years of age. The school might do something, however, to help youth make more adequate adjustments in the very real present. Certainly the school could help youth to understand some of the factors that brought about the unnatural and unnecessary situation they face.

The synthesis of meanings that any group of teachers makes with respect to the term *need* will depend, first, upon their understanding of the facts of normal biological and psychological development of human beings, and, second, upon an understanding of the social scene in which the high school operates. Any synthesis will be limited by a lack of knowledge and will be undergoing modification as the knowledge and understanding of the teacher group increase. Any group of teachers who honestly set themselves the task of synthesizing their concept of need to include both the sensed needs of the individual and the needs of society will become convinced that a secondary-school curriculum that eliminates a large percentage of the boys and girls who undergo the experiences it provides is adapted neither to the needs of adolescent youth nor to the needs of the society that supports the school.

Admission by teachers that they lack sufficient knowledge of either the subjective needs of adolescent or the needs of society to predicate with absolute accuracy all of those social needs which should be taken into consideration in arriving at a completely desirable synthesis of needs is but an evidence of wisdom, provided they set themselves the task of becoming better informed. An attempt at analysis of individual and social needs and an accompanying synthesis of the findings in formulating a concept of needs to afford a basis of curriculum development is a first step in curriculum reorganization. This procedure should be followed by trial, during which the original synthesis will be undergoing constant revision, and during which every effort will be made to appraise critically the results of trial. Failure to attempt such a synthesis and subsequent failure to test one's ideas in practice are besetting sins of the present corps of secondary-school teachers. Too many, recognizing the lack of finality in the proposal submitted here, take an attitude that action in changing a high-school curriculum to meet the needs of the adolescent should await authoritative confirmation. This attitude is based on a belief in authoritarianism that has no place in the life of a democratic people. The sooner teachers rid themselves of this belief, the sooner will there be a better chance of adapting the high-school curriculum to the needs of the adolescent. Certain difficulties must be faced, to be sure. Thus, in many cases, teachers in service have ceased to study after leaving college or university; and, therefore, have based their programs of action on information that leaves out of consideration new studies dealing with adolescent needs and new studies dealing with the needs of our democratic society. The difficulties teachers face in this connection can be overcome by a systematic study program.

The active interests of high-school pupils are intimately related to their needs. One is interested in, or has an interest in, activities which satisfy needs of which one is aware. In more instances than teachers are willing to admit, the adolescent's interest in satisfying a need serves both as one of the essential conditions for effective learning and as one of the trustworthy indicators of a desirable social need that should be satisfied. This statement is not a denial of an equally important consideration to the effect that adolescents frequently have acquired needs and, therefore, interests that conflict with the needs of the large society. Our acquaintance with the varieties of environments from which pupils come and our understanding of the influence of environment in creating and conditioning needs should make this statement easy enough to understand. We should understand also that the nature of the school environment which the teachers

have power to establish may become a powerful agency in creating and influencing needs and interests. The secondary school very often, however, attempts to make a connection between the curriculum and desirable needs and interests, a connection which a large percentage of adolescents cannot sense, that teachers themselves are unable to sense. This criticism implies that the secondary school succeeds best with pupils whose homes afford the greatest advantages, and that it fails most miserably with pupils whose homes furnish the least advantages. Another way of saying the same thing is that the American secondary school fails to help those youngsters who are most in need of help.

We next turn our attention to possible ways of remedying some of the ills that grow out of failure to make use of a principle to which we all swear allegiance. How can the curriculum be adapted more nearly to the needs and interests of adolescents, not only of the adolescents who come from homes that supply many of the environmental factors that lead to desirable development of their needs and interests but also of adolescents who come from less favored environments? How may this be done so as to create a more sympathetic understanding between the groups who come from a wide variety of home environments? The belief that the common school is completed with graduation from the eighth grade is in serious need of overhauling. Under present conditions and under conditions that are likely to prevail for years to come, democracy will be best served if our idea of the common school is extended so as to include educational provision for youth up to the time youth may enter the ranks of active workers. This age limit will vary with the locality in which given groups of youth reside, but the evidence points strongly to an upper age limit of at least twenty-one years in a large part of the United States.

Those who teach in secondary schools continue to regard the selective function as the main function of the high school without noting that other important functions should be realized through this agency. The attention of secondary-school principals and teachers has been directed to a consideration of other equally important functions in a report made last year by the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education* of the Department of Secondary-School Principals. This valuable report should exercise an important influence in our efforts to provide a more adequate secondary-school program. Underlying the provision of greater opportunities to adolescents through an extended common school there must be a willingness to attribute to many necessary

* Bulletin 64, Department of Secondary-School Principals, 5835 Kimbark Ave., Chicago.

occupations in which people engage a value and a dignity which at present do not attach to many of the occupations in which a large proportion of our people must engage.

There must be provision for an opportunity for youth to acquire a disposition to use leisure time in ways that are conducive to healthful living and recreation, because a large percentage of our population will engage in productive work of a nature that calls for little more than a willingness to tend a machine for a small number of hours per day. This kind of employment affords no outlet for many of man's hopes or aspirations. Its monotony is deadening to man's spirit. Other outlets must be afforded for the satisfaction of needs that cannot possibly be satisfied through unchallenging toil. The problem of the use of leisure for socially constructive ends has barely been touched. The secondary school should afford guidance to youth that will enable him to make a satisfactory adjustment to a peculiar condition the machine age has brought about.

When those who teach in our public high schools attempt to conceive of secondary education in terms of the needs and interests of *all* adolescents, rather than in terms of a selected group of adolescents, they will be forced to conclude that the traditional subject-centered curriculum is ill adapted to a broadened conception of the democratic function of the secondary school. Other means must be proposed to meet the demands that acceptance of a broadened democratic function imposes. Among the more promising means that have been tried on a rather wide scale is a curriculum that consists of the following three phases:

1. Provision of a core curriculum for all pupils, with attention to the major areas of life activities and to the continuous development of the learner.
2. Provision for the development of desirable persistent interests.
3. Provision for acquiring the necessary tools of learning, need for which has been discovered in a socially significant setting.

In a later paper the writer hopes to present a more detailed description and an appraisal of this means of adapting the secondary-school curriculum to the needs and interests of adolescents.

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ADJUSTING SECONDARY EDUCATION TO THE NEEDS OF RURAL YOUTH¹

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It is evident that those who planned this program and chose the topic, "Adjusting Secondary Education to the Needs of Rural Youth," made two important assumptions: first, that secondary education ought to be adjusted to the needs of rural youth; and second, that the needs of rural youth are not entirely identical with the needs now being served most effectively by secondary schools. I shall accept these assumptions, without question, and proceed to state one or two of my own.

I assume that the needs of rural youth grow out of their own conditions and characteristics as these are related to the demands of modern life. I assume also that the public secondary school is an important instrument of society, set up and maintained at public expense as a means of helping young people to understand themselves more fully and to prepare themselves more effectively for taking such places in modern life as each is by nature best qualified to take.

If these assumptions are accepted, we may ask ourselves two important questions that bear directly upon the topic: (1) What are the implications of "youth"? (2) What are the implications of "rural" residence?

Let us consider first what it means to be young. Youth is apparently a period characterized by great energy and vitality, but in most cases this energy is not highly concentrated or well organized. Young people are, for example, rarely satisfied to sit by the fire and read or talk with the family. They usually want to be going somewhere. They are restless and must be active, even though their activity is not directed toward the accomplishment of any particular purpose. The marvelous energy of youth must be recognized as potential power, however, waiting only for effective guidance and direction to become productive.

Along with its great physical energy, youth usually seems to us adults to be possessed by a bewildering impulsiveness. Youth's decisions and actions are not usually based upon careful reflection and judgment, but frequently upon momentary impulse and emotional tone. If a course of action appeals to a youth as interesting, clever, or right, he is not often inclined to pause for a full consideration of the consequences it might have upon

¹An address delivered before the meeting of the Department of Rural Education of the NEA, Atlantic City, March 1, 1938.

himself or upon others. Indecision and inactivity appear to the youth as undesirable traits to be avoided.

Perhaps one of the reasons for youth's impulsiveness is the multiplicity of relatively new interests, ideas, and emotional attitudes that flood in upon him at adolescence. Abilities which had previously seemed not very important appear suddenly to take on great significance to youth. Every unusual skill a youth observes in others is an immediate challenge to his own skill, and his life becomes a continuous series of efforts to equal the feats of others. As a result of these experiments, he takes pleasure and satisfaction in repeating those activities in which he does relatively well, and he is annoyed by and tends to discontinue the activities in which he does poorly.

Another reason youth seems to us to be so impulsive is that the young person is impressed by the fact that he has not yet had all the varied experiences that older persons have usually had. There are so many activities the youth has not yet experienced, and he is so anxious to be able to claim experience in every type of activity that he seems to rush headlong, first in one direction and then in another, without stopping to ask for information or to heed it if it is offered.

Many a youth in high school still wonders whether the world may not, after all, be organized in a great conspiracy to deceive, entertain, or thwart him. It is very difficult to deceive young people regarding one's real character, however, for they seem to be extremely sensitive to the personal attitudes and deep-set feelings of those around them. A parent or teacher may think he is cleverly concealing an unfriendly or unsympathetic attitude, but a youth will in most cases sense much more than the spoken word expresses. The youth is particularly sensitive to personal relationships, injustices, and hypocrisy.

Young people of high-school age are usually quite idealistic in their attitudes, but they are easily made cynical by evidences of sham and hypocrisy in those who teach them. While there is probably no other period in life during which it is easier to win a person to a life of self-sacrifice and helpful service to humanity, it is at the same time easier to drive him to a life of anti-social and selfish activities than at any other period. Sincerity, directness, and justice are almost certain to win the respect of a high-school youth, but the absence of these traits will make it practically impossible for one to gain either his confidence or his respect.

One characteristic of youth which must never be overlooked is intense desire for individual recognition. Public applause may temporarily embarrass a youth, especially if it comes unexpectedly, but every normal youth has a strong desire to be recognized

as an individual of real significance and worth. To be merely a member of a certain family, school, or team is not usually very satisfying, unless the group to which one belongs has been given some distinctive recognition. It appears, however, that this desire to be recognized as an individual of importance is not a characteristic of youth only. Evidences of this yearning for individual recognition appear early in childhood and persist throughout life, but the trait is so powerful and so important in dealing with young people that it should never be overlooked.

Youth has many other important characteristics, but a sufficient number of them has been presented to indicate the general nature of youth as an educational problem. If youth implies all of these traits, then what does living in the country imply? How is rural youth different from urban youth? Does the country youth have less energy, or is his energy more effectively concentrated upon the achievement of purposes than is the energy of the city youth? Only, I think, in the sense that the country is likely to provide more definite and earlier assignments of responsibility for work than is the city. Given the same freedom from work responsibilities, country youth would exhibit just as much excess energy and use it just as ineffectively as city youth.

In a similar manner, I do not see that any trait in the list of characteristics mentioned above is much more applicable to youth in the city than to those in the country. A youth of high-school age, whether rural or urban, is impulsive, is somewhat bewildered by the great variety of new interests, emotions, and abilities that are crowding into his life, is anxious to enlarge his range of experiences, tends to look for personal implications in all that he experiences, is naturally idealistic, but is very sensitive to insincerity and easily becomes cynical, and is constantly anxious to be recognized as an individual of distinctive worth. The fundamental nature, desires, and impulses of urban and rural youth are the same, I believe, and we must search elsewhere if we are to discover significant differences in the educational needs of these two groups.

Are there, then, any important differences in the basic problems to be faced in life by urban and rural youth? Are the problems of physical health and safety likely to be different for the rural youth than for the city youth? If the rural youth would only stay on the farm and the urban youth in the city, there might be some slight differences in the education needed for maintaining health and safety in the two groups. They will not stay, however. The city people insist on going to the country for holidays and vacations, and the country folk insist on going to the city for various purposes. From a community health point of view, the city youth needs to understand how to preserve life

and health in the country, and the rural youth needs to understand how to avoid accidents and disease in the city.

So far as any differences do exist in the fundamental problems of family and emotional life, I believe the rural youth has some slight advantage over the urban youth. Because families live farther apart in the country, and because the members of a family are more dependent upon each other for coöperation than upon tradespeople and special workers belonging to other families, it should be somewhat easier for the rural youth than for the city youth to recognize the importance of mutual tolerance and helpfulness in the family and to cultivate the other domestic virtues. The same line of argument would probably be valid for the problems of social and political organization. Since economic conditions are simpler in the country, and fewer complicating factors exist to hide the real nature of social problems, rural youth should find it possible to see more clearly the elements in the situations that arise and to gain greater confidence in their own judgments regarding the issues of community organization and control.

Does this slight advantage of rural over urban youth exist also when they face economic and vocational problems? I doubt it very much. While the same forces are affecting these problems in the city and in the country, changes in occupations are taking place in the city much more rapidly than in the country. The breaking down of productive processes into repetitive routines has gone much further in the mills and shops of the city, but a large part of the labor supply for these routine operations in city plants is being recruited from the country. The flow of young labor from the country to city is in normal times much greater than the flow from city to country, partly because of lower birth-rates in the city, partly because the whole country is tending to become urbanized, and partly for other reasons. We may disapprove of this drift of youth from rural to urban areas, but it will undoubtedly continue. If our rural young people are to compete on equal terms with their city cousins, they must have available in their rural schools just as adequate sources of information about their own qualifications, and about the requirements of both rural and urban occupations, as are available in the city schools. Adequate occupational diagnosis, information, and guidance is equally necessary in urban and rural secondary schools.

If urban and rural young people do not differ greatly in their native characteristics, nor in the basic problems of human adjustment that they must expect to meet in life, from what sources do their differences in educational needs arise? Do rural pupils learn under different conditions or by different methods than city pupils? I have never found any evidence that the geography or

residence has any effect whatever upon the conditions that affect learning, if ability and preparation are equalized. It is true that we have usually given rural children shorter school terms, less adequate libraries, laboratories, buildings, equipment, teachers, supervisors, and health facilities, but where these factors and the hereditary factors of native ability are equalized, the rural pupil learns and adapts himself to new conditions in exactly the same ways that are effective with the city pupil.

If my study of the problem may be trusted, the chief differences in the educational needs of rural and urban secondary-school pupils arise, not from differences in their native qualities and characteristics, not from differences in the basic problems of human adjustment that they must solve, and not from differences in their possible contributions and services to society, but from variations in the backgrounds of experience they have already acquired from school and from daily life. The needs of a typical rural pupil are different from the needs of a typical city pupil chiefly because both have not already learned the same things. The country pupil has learned some things from his daily life that the city child will probably have to learn at school, and the city child has learned from experiences some things that the country child may learn at school. Effective education in either case must begin with the pupil where he is and make progress in those directions that are appropriate for him.

Objective measurements of achievement, ability, interest, personality, or vocational aptitudes would show far greater variations among the fourteen-year-old children in a rural high school, or in a city high school, than would be shown between the average child of that age in the rural school and the average child of that age in the city school. There can be no doubt that living in the country and going to country schools has produced some differences in experience and in knowledge between the typical rural child and his cousin who has lived in the city and attended city schools, but these differences between typical pupils in the two situations are much less important educationally than the larger differences that exist among the pupils who have been going to the same school together for years in either situation. The intelligent adjustment of secondary education to the school needs of typical rural youth would produce, I believe, almost identically the same institution that would be produced by adjusting secondary education to the real needs of typical urban youth. Whether a school is in the city or in the country, it should begin with each pupil where he actually is, rather than at some point that represents the average for his age, color, or community.

It is impossible to adjust secondary education effectively to the needs of any youth without determining first what those needs are. It seems foolish to me to assume that because a boy lives in the country he should be trained to be a farmer or that because a girl has been graduated from the elementary school she should begin to study algebra and French. Some of the boys who live in the country would probably be found to need instruction in agriculture if they were carefully studied, and it is even possible that some girls would be found by intelligent diagnoses to need algebra and French, but real needs must be determined rather than assumed. If there is any institution that should be expected to proceed upon the basis of definite knowledge and intelligence, it would seem to me to be the public high school. Whether the pupils come from the country or from the city does not give the institution a right to act blindly and to make unchecked assumptions regarding the educational needs of their students.

Adjusting secondary education to the needs of rural youth, from this point of view, cannot mean the mere substitution of some other uniform curriculum for the one that has been in operation. Even the provision of a half-dozen alternative curricula for the old one would not be an intelligent adjustment. Intelligent adjustment, whether in rural or in city schools, must be based upon the carefully determined needs of the individuals to be educated.

What we need first, if secondary education is to be adjusted to the needs of individual young persons, is a full recognition by everyone concerned that both the immediate and ultimate educational needs of individuals differ somewhat, even though these young individuals may be in the same rural high school, in the same room, and in approximately the same year of life. We must have available in each high school a few thoroughly competent diagnosticians to determine the educational needs of each of the pupils, in order that the staff may be able to administer in each case the most appropriate treatment.

In the typical rural secondary school to-day we usually find one teacher who is supposed to be a specialist in administering history, while another specializes in giving mathematics, another in English, and so on. The pupil entering this school finds a prescribed list of things to take, or he may perhaps be asked to choose one of three or four lists without being given adequate information about his own individual needs, or about the relations of these alternative lists to his own individual needs. As a matter of fact, these persons frequently show little interest in whether a given pupil needs help or not. One teacher is concerned about the facts of history, whether the pupil uses effective language in presenting

these facts or not, and another is concerned with giving the facts and principles of chemistry, regardless of whether a particular pupil needs chemistry or cooking. If the needs of individual pupils were foremost in the minds of all members of the school staff and competent diagnosticians were constantly studying these needs, those who specialize in administering a certain type of educational treatment would be far more successful in their efforts and those who take the treatments would really benefit by them. If we honestly want secondary education to be adjusted to the needs of our rural youth, we will make adequate provisions for determining what the needs of individual rural youth actually are.

I recognize, as well as you do, that it would cost more to employ a competent educational diagnostician than to employ an ordinary one. Much could be done along this line at relatively little expense by merely changing the emphasis in our schools from the subject-matter fields to pupil needs. If we will only consider the waste in effort, time, and money that now occurs because we try to teach pupils so many things they do not need and cannot learn, I am sure that the addition of at least one expert diagnostician for every eight or ten classrooms would mean a great saving of money per unit of actual learning. Furthermore, I see no possible way to adjust secondary education to the real needs of rural youth, without first making definite provisions for determining what each pupil really needs.

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ARE THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES HELPING THE YOUNG WOMAN TO FIND HER PLACE IN THE PRESENT SOCIAL ORDER?

META GLASS, President
Sweet Briar College, Virginia

It is an exceedingly difficult task to tell whether schools are fitting persons for their roles in the present social order. In the first place, there is no agreement on what is intrinsic and what is accidental in society; nor on what the individual's place is in society; nor on how much influence schools have in any final position an individual may take. If we consider young women, we must add to this a long standing belief, or supposition if you prefer to call it so, that women have a special place in society and we have a question so large and so vague that it is only possible to posit some characteristics for both society and women and tell in a tendential way whether schools are moving in that direction—a qualitative analysis of their work with only inaccurate quantitative indications. And yet the task seems worth trying in order that we may know what to emphasize, what to drop, a little better in what proportion to combine, and, above all, how to approach what we do that its validity may not be negated by poor achievement.

What is a young woman's place in present-day society? First, we recognize her as a thinking, feeling, acting individual, with the same need for clear, disciplined, effective thinking as men have. There are large areas in which men and women are alike, practically exactly alike, and this is an alikeness which I see more and more as I grow older. The areas in which they differ are narrow and sufficiently marked for us to be almost able to entrust to natural promptings their special cultivation. The same is true, of course, with regard to feeling.

All this is entirely obvious and has always been true, but it is so fundamental and so easily forgotten in the concern with upper layers of the shifting, with the self-conscious magnifying of one's own time, that it is wise to remind ourselves when we approach to-day that in only a very limited sense is it not yesterday or to-morrow.

But also she has, from many and complex causes, a special affiliation for human relations. Of course, she has the same range of human relations that every one has, but she is apt to be discerning, sensitive to shades of significance, congenial to this field, rather than irked by it, and, in the same proportion espec-

ially useful to society in developing right relations in this area. She has the chance to be as unthinking, as emotionally undisciplined, as spasmodic in action here as anywhere else in her life, and, to the degree that she so behaves, she is marring what might be a particular contribution to present-day society.

We all recognize ours as a day marked by confusing relationships. What is the proper relationship of children to their parents, of grown sons and daughters to their older parents, of married couples to each other on a social and economic basis that is shifting visibly? What is the just and productive relationship between householders and their servants, between them and tradespeople, even between them and delivery boys? The proper relationship has rarely been better described than by saying: "The arch sin against my brother is to use him as a thing; for he is a person." The application of that viewpoint, supplemented with as much understanding as possible of the complications and implications of dealing with persons as independent personalities, is rich investment for society in a young woman's education.

I have started with her more intimate relationships, but human relations extend for her to-day into municipal, rural, state, and national spheres. Women do less with the conquest of nature and the securing of natural resources for human use. They do not mine coal or work steel nor build railways, tunnels, bridges, and houses, nor dam streams and purvey electricity. They work less with things than with people, and have more time as well as greater congeniality for the cultivation of human relations. This should be capitalized for society's sake in municipal and public housekeeping, in the solution of social, educational, and political problems.

Plainly society cannot entrust to women these highly important tasks, which they might do particularly well, unless women are given all possible knowledge and understanding that would produce wisdom in doing the tasks. Human relationships do not exist in a vacuum; they arise in connection with our conquest of nature, in all of the reaches of science and work, in the progress of civilization, in the discernment of the goal toward which it travels. The difficulty about solutions arising from women of problems of human relations up to now has largely been that, realizing this congeniality of approach, we have been content to rely too far upon it, tried to use it as a sort of an uncanny sixth sense, and realized only low productive use of it. It takes broad education to ballast it, but so ballasted it is too valuable for society to forego.

There is another thing that we must remember about young women. They are purveyors of happiness or misery at high

temperature, both dangerous explosives. As much as can be learned about the deep sources of happiness and its obverse, misery, belongs in a young woman's education. Right human relations, of course, underlie it. This is true for herself and for the persons who know their dependence upon her. We are all familiar with the investigations that show crippled personnel adjustments in industry and business and consequent economic difficulties that strikingly accompany, if they are not solely produced by, unhappy domestic relations. For the sake of other people, young women should be led to recognize how far their own emotional adjustments ramify, and early learn to go far beyond personal happiness at a given moment as a sufficient guide to action. In proportion as their influence is great, so is their responsibility here.

For her own sake as well as for that of others, a young woman should have an understanding not only of the sources of happiness in human relations, but other sources from which she may draw and to which she may direct others. Many of these we have noticeably neglected in the last generation and they need to be emphasized and developed. Joy in work well done is one of the most easily tapped sources of the raw material of happiness and it yields a quiet, steady supply. Whatever can be done in education to reveal this abundance to students is good education. There has been such eagerness to improve, speed up, depersonalize work that we have lost, along with much poor, back-breaking, dulling drudgery, the realization of intrinsic quality that can redeem work. Much of our mechanical routine will yield little of it. There is less chance for genuine satisfaction in holding a shoe for a machine to clamp on its sole than in designing, cutting, moulding, fitting that same sole to the shoe by hand. This, of course, does not mean that we must cast aside shoe-making machinery and return to hand cobbling. It does mean that education must now consciously arouse in persons the value of quality, which the nature of the task used to arouse.

Of a keener, more far-reaching kind is the happiness to be got from designing and making things of recognized beauty. A young woman should know the inherent satisfaction in seeing appreciatively tapestry, painting, sculpture; and the larger satisfaction of doing these things herself acceptably-to-excellently. In revolt against an era of bad taste and poor workmanship which at its worst prompted young women to cover small jugs with putty and bits of colored glass, we characteristically fled in the opposite direction and grew afraid of suggesting artistic expression to any but an already proved genius, and of her we grew suspicious. If artistic creation produces no more than an encounter with the

permanent values of aesthetic principles and some appreciation of the problems to be met, it will still have made a person whose capacity for pleasure in looking upon good work is greater than it would have been without the trials. From a plane of general artistic appreciation and some competence rise the peaks of fine performance. What I have said of the plastic arts is true of music, whether we listen to it or perform it or compose it. And more than this, they with poetry and to a lesser degree the dance, have quality that made the ancients early recognize the bard as the seer. They have a directness to the core of reality and can from this deep source inform all living, which is the real function of art, and produce a rare kind of happiness even in the realm of tragedy.

So far I have said nothing about making a living either by money wages or by wages in kind. To find her place in the present social order, a young woman has to realize that she must be able to do worth-while work in the world. Look for a moment, however, at the kind of young women we have been educating: one who has learned the necessity of thinking clearly and something of how to do it, who recognizes the dynamo of emotions of which she is in charge, and something of how to control it, who knows the deep-lying importance of correct human relationships—yes, even to the casual delivery boy—and who understands the value of quality in work and the revivifying outlets in creative work. Then grant that she is a young woman and must expect to learn any particular job by bringing all these assets to play in dead earnest upon learning the needed technique in good old apprentice fashion without the apprentice abuses. Would you hesitate to employ such a young woman for any job open to the young? What young women need for special jobs in the present social order is the firm conviction that what the job demands they must get, and then keep it up to date.

Now how can the school fit a person for her place? Primarily by guiding into knowledge of the physical world in which we live and of the organic nature of the society of man which should come from an acquaintance with his efforts and failures from the primitive times beloved of anthropology to the era of New Deals of one kind or another wherever governments have developed; by guiding into knowledge of our own nature, in its religious, aesthetic, reasoning, and physical reaches; and in this guiding be developing an ability to think, to feel, to act harmoniously toward a goal. We would have the young woman recognize and accept her role of coöperation in an organic and interdependent society—have a large share of the good old responsibility on which a satisfactory life is grounded. She must recognize always the need all

her life long of continuing to learn, consciously seeking new enlightenment and knowledge in the face of new problems, and old ones, too, for that matter. She must have resourcefulness in the face of change. And she must periodically, beginning in her school days but by no means ending there, find the meaningfulness in her life that affords the conviction necessary for motive power. This means that she must have a tenable hypothesis of what life means and the relation of her life to other life, for without such a view it is too difficult for anyone to live vigorously and effectively. She should also realize that her hypothesis will, we trust, gradually change as life goes on in minor and major respects, and she should be ready to welcome such change. This calls for a nice balance between acting on conviction and letting conviction modify itself in the face of new facts, but then living is the maintenance of a nice balance from the physical spheres right on to the highest spiritual reaches. A young woman should know this, and know it early. This guiding into knowledge in the schools can be promoted and hindered in countless ways.

There are a few points on which I venture suggestions. For the young, and the younger the more necessarily, the guides must seem to know the way, to understand, to live by what they say is good. It is our burden and at the same time our chance for the most satisfaction that we shall ever get o'er of our work, that we are of great importance in the success of a school. And yet, the teacher is not all. Everyone of us can remember learning to our own satisfaction and profit things that have stayed with us through the years under a teacher who did so many things wrong that by rights we should have learned nothing. This is testimony to the compelling power of knowledge. Knowledge is something we minister to—we do not create it. I was late in feeling the appeal of poetry and getting an insight into its power. It all came alive to me in my first graduate study one summer under a man who read much of it aloud to us in a low, mumbling, unpleasant voice and who used an awkward gesture in place of any interpretation. Such conditions would not have achieved it for me when I was younger. As we grow older, it becomes easier to recognize a significant truth when uttered by a person who neither really values it nor practices it. This, however, is not a goal of good teaching. These things that the young woman must do we teachers must do, and constantly re-do in the fact of our own living to be effective guides.

The all-important cultivation of attitudes, the most permanent part of an education, results from the nature of knowledge itself, the way it is presented, the values shown in it, and upon illustrative action. The school life is an unseamed part of all the

rest of life. It is in the things that one naturally does in school that the knowledge, attitudes, and ideals that emerge from teaching should be made to prevail. But there are many other educative agencies than the schools, and I for one, am all in favor of leaving to them what they can do especially well and even helping them to do half-way jobs better, rather than in drawing under the aegis of the school every activity that is recognized as educative. The school becomes top-heavy. It takes over this and that because it seems to be neglected or poorly done. There is a very good chance that when so much is taken over, it will likewise be poorly done in the school. It seems to me a sounder way to lead intelligent, thinking, disciplined young persons into activities organized or unorganized outside the school, to accustom them to taking part in the things that will go on for them after school years, with a sense of responsibility to make the outside and continuing agency do its work. Wherever an already organized agency, even if its conditions are not as ideal as we would have them, exists for activity illustrative of right living, I should encourage students to make use of that agency, with discernment and courage to contribute to its efficiency rather than set up another in school. Throw students with quickened perceptions and awakened responsibility back upon their homes, the Church, civic life, the Girl Scouts, Home Demonstration, and other interest clubs with courage and a willingness to tackle a stiff problem, and society will be the gainer as well as the young person whose achievement here has for her a reality not so recognizable in a school promoted setup.

The attitude of the school toward such agencies should, I believe, be one of thankfulness that these agencies exist to help cover a field too great for the school alone; a generous recognition of good work and special fitness at so many points and of strategic position for continuation; a hearty coöperation by sending them young members informed, disciplined, and awakened by the school's more concentrated training. This seems to me the most effective way of fitting young women, or young men either, for their place in the present social order.

I have made no distinction between the secondary and college periods. Not many distinctions need to be made, I believe, in the general picture I have drawn. College training ought to go deeper and so, when the absolutely necessary tools of further knowledge have been safeguarded in the program of the secondary school, I think the secondary school can go over a wider area, touch the many things all persons ought to be conscious of, open many doors at least a crack, and leave to the college upper stages of specific fields of knowledge, even the first glimpse of such fields

as psychology and philosophy except as this knowledge informs other approaches. It must also look to the college for increasing the sense of the oneness of knowledge and facility in making correlations—and to the college and technical schools to furnish instruction in specific skills, except here and there in a rudimentary form.

If the college, or for that matter the school, is residential, there must be in the school more chance for illustrative activity, but, even here, to take part in an outside activity is better than to organize a parallel. When the school is in a city, like a public high school, the setup of illustrative activities in school can be cut to a minimum and the energy necessary for their conduct put upon sending promising members into outside organizations.

Are the schools and colleges helping the young woman to find her place in the present social order? Some are and some are not. All, even the best, are only approaching what they could do. In so far as they are stressing the ephemeral and shifting, the immediate techniques, in so far as they are falling in with false and undesirable emphases in our present-day society instead of showing how to right them—they are not helping to fit young persons for their places. In so far as they guide into knowledge, developing powers of thinking, understanding one's self and the world, and into control of emotions with skill in human relations, a respect for an acquaintance with roads to happiness for self and others—in so far are they helping. Helping is a good word, because the school must ever remember how many other agencies can and do also help.

We teachers need courage and insight gained through constant study and trial of the better way, and a conscious effort to make the values we proclaim prevail in our own lives. That is far enough to go. The student must see and know but, after all, she must be free to reject and find a better way; or reject and fail. That is her inalienable right.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE AND GENERAL EDUCATION

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When one speaks of the junior college, three different types of institutions suggest themselves. All are expressions of the junior-college idea, but they vary in their curriculum programs and in the purposes which they serve.

The public junior college, which accommodates a large group of students who might otherwise be deprived of educational opportunity beyond the limits of the local high school, must necessarily think in terms of courses which will round out the educational equipment of students in their preparation to face life as competent citizens, economically and socially. Only in so far as the public junior college is dominated by the university, which seeks to impose a curriculum comparable to its own academic and pre-professional curriculum of the freshman-sophomore years, does it need to consider itself the funnel through which potential baccalaureate candidates are poured into the traditional scheme of liberal arts training or academic and pre-professional specialization. For the public junior college, the so-called "terminal" course assumes major importance if the college is to fulfill its obligation to that great group of students for which it is theoretically designed. Unfortunately, the "hands-off" policy has not been widely practised in defining the relationship between the public junior college and the universities and senior colleges which represent the advanced and specialized field of learning. Therefore, in many public junior colleges to-day the objective of general education, usually conceded to be the rightful sphere of junior-college effort, is only a thin mask for the traditional prerequisites set up by specialized and professional institutions.

A second type of junior college is that in which the pre-professional aim is dominant. It is usually fostered by a university and is often an integral part of the university organization. It serves as a sifting device for professional schools of law, medicine, and engineering and for advanced specialized work in the traditional branches of scholarship. Both content and method are largely determined by the rigid requirements of university authorities, and scant attention is paid to those fields of lay interest which contribute to the competency of living, except as competency is interpreted in terms of economic independence or academic distinction. Clearly, there is little place in such an institution for the terminal course, and whatever general education is accom-

plished through the rigidly prescribed curriculum is incidental rather than purposive.

The third type of junior college is the type which accepts frankly the theory of general education as its basis of practice. It is found in greatest numbers among the private junior colleges, which are free, to a certain extent, from the system of subject-matter "articulation" which so strongly influences the programs of the other two types. This statement must not convey the implication that the private junior college does not also have its troubles in satisfying the more or less arbitrary "regulations" set up by senior colleges to which its students apply for admission. But, in the main, the private junior college has addressed itself earnestly to the problem of general education. It has not been afraid to define its purpose in terms of education for the layman or the consumer instead of education for the specialist or the producer. It has subjected the content and organization of the curriculum to critical examination and has challenged the right of certain subject-matter courses to a place in the program of general education without functional adaptation of content and method to conform to the broader aims of the institution. It is here that terminal courses find their most fertile field. It is here that really constructive work is being done in exploring the possibilities of a general education program which will make for effective and well-rounded living in those "functional" areas in which the interests and needs of their students lie.

The only sound approach to the reorganization of curriculum content and administration in the junior college is an open-minded analysis of activities and needs. Stephens College, in attempting to arrive at functional organization, focused its attention, not upon the stabilized and departmentalized subject matter inherited from the liberal arts college of the nineteenth century, but upon the student for whom the educational agencies of the college exist. It explored the problems of adult women; it catalogued their acknowledged activities and their expressed needs, and formulated a seven-fold objective (the functional areas of the curriculum) toward which to direct an integrated program of instruction.

This does not mean that high standards of achievement are not expected, but it is an achievement that lies beyond scholarship and finds its justification in purpose—in the relation which achievement bears to the total personality growth of the individual student on campus. General education, as it is conceived by the junior college, utilizes the products of scholarship and applies them, through intelligent mastery and understanding, to human needs.

"Studentship," therefore, becomes more important than "scholarship" in its narrower meaning. And for that reason, at Stephens College the faculty endeavors to analyze the quality and achievement of successful students and to rate each student according to the degree in which these qualities are present. Education, then, becomes growth under guidance rather than routine, periodic testing. Competitive scholarship, as a kind of exhibitionism, is replaced by individual development in the direction of acknowledged needs. In the student's consciousness a "personality goal chart" looms as clearly as the customary examination mark.

Assuming that a college staff feels free to explore the content and methods of general education, what basic information is necessary to satisfactory curriculum readjustment? First of all, it must define clearly those fields of activity in which it wishes its graduates to be proficient. It may select, for example, on the basis of its analysis of general need, such areas as communication, aesthetic appreciation, the science of health, and social adjustment. Then, definitely resisting the temptations to make specialists of its students, it must approach these areas with the inquiry: "What knowledge, what abilities, what attitudes do students need in order to participate effectively in the life about them?" An examination of communicational need may reveal not only the usual activities of written and oral expression but also the assimilative skills of reading and listening. It may lead into the communicational aspects of radio and moving pictures, into analysis of propaganda, into speech diagnosis and improvement. But wherever it leads, the college must have the courage to follow with whatever ingenuity it may possess for devising courses of study and organizing functional content for instruction. To be sure, it may need to sacrifice some of the time hitherto accorded to the rhetorical disciplines of narration and description. If it cannot do this without wincing, it has not yet achieved its emancipation from the spell of subject matter for its own sake.

In addition to the evaluation of content and the reorganization of subject matter within the various subject fields, it is necessary to modify the administration of the curriculum in such a way as to emphasize the inter-relationships within the total program of study. The time-honored departmental system is too often a "compartmental" system. If an inter-play of understandings is necessary to satisfactory progress in the social studies, then the so-called "departments" of history, of sociology, of economics, must be under coördination and unified direction; likewise art, literature, and music must be administered through a unifying organization which will contribute to effective integration in

the humanities. For, in spite of a host of warped meanings which soon attach themselves to a newly popularized term in education, the psychological importance of integration remains fundamental in the process of general training.

The junior college, therefore, which proposes to do an effective job of general education must find some way to carry into practice the theory of the integration of learning. A number of colleges, including Stephens, are experimenting with the divisional, as opposed to the departmental, plan of organization. At Stephens the divisions are (1) the division of humanities, (2) the division of social studies, (3) the division of natural sciences, (4) the division of skills and techniques, and (5) the division of extra-class life. Whether or not the administrative divisions should be made to parallel exactly the seven functional areas which the college has selected for exploration is a problem which is now being considered. On the basis of our experience, we are convinced of the advantages of the division-type organization.

We should not consider going back to the specialized departmental units. Our problem is to improve the organization and administration of the divisions to the limits of their logical and practical possibilities.

Perhaps, the greatest hazard to the junior-college program is the natural tendency of teachers, who themselves have been trained as subject-matter specialists, to regard the traditional content of their own fields as sacred in its own right. This instinct of departmental "loyalty" hangs like a descending snare over the modern liberalizing movements in general education. Add to this fact the regulative influence, exerted either consciously or unconsciously, by senior colleges and universities in an effort to guarantee arbitrary "pre-requisites" for advanced training, and we have the two major problems which confront the administration of the modern junior college and which imperil the fortunes of general education.

See *Announcement*, page 37.

THE PROVINCE OF HIGH-SCHOOL JOURNALISM

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I should like to talk to you, not as the director of the Medill School of journalism or even as a teacher of journalism, but as a newspaper man who left active newspaper work, after some twenty years of experience, just a few weeks ago and is now faced with this whole problem of education for journalism. I think I know something about your part in that problem for, as an advisor to the National Scholastic Press Association, I have had for many years a close contact with your work, and I think I have a sympathetic understanding of the job you are trying to do.

But, as a practical newspaperman, I have to view this problem from the standpoint of the needs of the press. There is no question but that our press to-day needs better-educated, better-trained newspapermen than it has ever needed before. These serious economic, political, and social problems which our newspapers to-day must attempt to interpret to their readers demand more than a mere knowledge of the techniques of the craft; they demand the very best all-around education that can be brought to the profession.

In this democracy of ours no agency plays a more important part in determining what our people think and believe, in shaping social attitudes and raising social standards, than does the newspaper. The facts of daily life that regulate thought, business, ideals, and aspirations are current events and current opinion—and these are the commodities with which the newspaper deals. I have some serious doubts as to whether our editorial pages are any longer the molders of public opinion they once were, but that is not an unmixed evil. If our newspapers will but give their readers all the facts in their news columns, our readers will probably be capable of making up their own minds on public issues. They have done that in election after election. To-day, it is not so much the editorial page but rather the news that our papers carry in their news columns and the way in which that news is played which determines what our people think and believe.

Sometimes I think that perhaps we newspapermen take ourselves too seriously, considering all the other media for public information existing to-day. Yet Gray and Munroe, in their recent study of the reading habits of American adults, found that 54.6 per cent of all the time spent in reading by adults is devoted to the newspaper for most of their reading.

Well, now, if it is true that newspapers play such an important role in our American life, is it not important that the men and women in whose hands the food of public opinion is to be entrusted be given the best possible professional training?

If our press to-day is to do the kind of job it should do in interpreting the complex problems of the modern world, it must employ men and women who understand these problems. It can no longer be content with people who have inadequate educational backgrounds. I think that our professional schools of journalism will have to expand their programs to provide that kind of background. I feel that our students should go out with not only a good background in English and literature but with a thorough grounding in American state and municipal government in order that they may deal intelligently with the news of government which they must handle every day. I think they should be thoroughly familiar with European and American history, for they cannot deal intelligently with the stuff of which current history is made unless they understand the background out of which current history has grown and can see current events in the light of the lessons of the past. They should know not only economic theory but the practical applications of that theory to monetary problems, prices, tariffs, domestic and international trade, public finance, state and local taxation, public utilities, and labor problems. They ought to have more than a speaking acquaintance with problems of social welfare, crime, poverty, poor relief, and the social pathology of our urban and rural communities. These economic, social, and political questions are front-page news in our papers to-day. How can our people do an intelligent job of reporting and interpreting this news without that kind of background?

Now we who are in education have a definite responsibility to the press—we in the universities and you in the high schools—and it seems to me that your responsibility in the high schools is to see that you do not professionalize your work to such an extent that your students will be encouraged to seek entry into the newspaper profession immediately after high school. The newspaper business is overcrowded at the bottom with poorly paid people who have not the equipment and background to work up out of these ruts. Do not let your high-school students plunge directly into this field unless you want to condemn them to stay in these poorly paid ruts at the bottom. Our publishers are no different from any other employers. Many of them will hire cheap help if they can get it. They will take on a high-school boy who can live at home and is willing to work for ten or twelve dollars a week. But it is wrong for your students to take that

kind of job—they are wronging themselves, and the man who hires them is wronging his profession, for he is beating down the salary level of the whole profession and is lowering the quality of our newspapers. If you have any students who really have the stuff to make the grade in newspaper work, urge them to go on to college or to a university to get the kind of education they will need if they want to get anywhere in this newspaper business.

Now please do not think that in saying that I am making a bid for more students for our schools of journalism. We have too many applicants now, and our job in the next few years must be one of careful weeding and the selection of those whom we consider capable of profiting from professional training.

Schools of journalism are the newest of our professional schools—a development of the last thirty years. For a long time newspapermen thought that newspaper work could not be taught. A newspaperman was born, not made. He just appeared out of the woodwork somewhere, got an assignment, and from then on he was a newspaperman until he drank himself to death. Those views were shared quite generally by both the press and the general public.

Now this may sound like heresy, coming from me, but I think there is a lot to that idea that newspapermen are born, not made. Certainly it is work that requires very special aptitudes. Too many of the young men and women from your high schools who come to our universities intent on journalism are, I am afraid, attracted by the romance and glory that is supposed to be attached to this newspaper business. They have seen newspaper movies, read books containing reminiscences of foreign correspondents, or have had a lot of fun working on their high-school publications. But the newspaper profession is a very exacting call. It is one to which many think they are called, but few are really chosen. And it seems to me that we in the schools of journalism and you in the high schools have a responsibility to the press in weeding out those who would be misfits in journalistic work and in encouraging only those who show special promise of success in this field to go into professional training.

Now perhaps you are wondering why I am stressing the fact that high-school journalism should be kept to non-professional aspects. The chances are that most of you have no thought of offering professional training in your high-school journalism work. What I have said may not apply to you at all, and yet I was rather disturbed by the report that was brought to me early this week by one of our graduate students, who, to enable him to write his doctor's dissertation, is making a survey of high-school journalism in the United States. He reported that one out of every five

high-school teachers who have replied to his queries expressed the feeling that her objective was to qualify students to earn a living on newspapers after leaving high school. If that conception is anywhere nearly as prevalent as this study indicates, we have serious need of evaluating this high-school work in journalism and determining what its province should be.

I think that journalism work in high schools has some very definite values. The publication of newspapers, yearbooks, and magazines has become one of the most important of our high-school extra-curriculum activities. And it is such a worth-while activity. As a means of vitalizing English instruction and of bringing to a point in practical application to everyday life the things learned in other courses, school publications are without equal. Writing news stories, feature stories, and editorials is so much more fun than merely writing abstract themes. Academic compositions are often purposeless, whereas journalistic writing provides a very definite motivation for writing. And yet, while these students are having their fun, they are learning to think straight and to write clearly and interestingly. They are learning to gather, evaluate, and interpret significant information objectively.

Educational thinkers, moreover, are emphasizing the fact that it is the business of the school to provide pupils with actual life situations. Work on school publications offers such situations every day.

I have always felt, furthermore, that no other work in school offers any greater possibilities for building character and good citizenship than does school publication work. No matter whether your students work on newspapers, yearbooks, or magazines, they are going to learn lessons in accuracy, punctuality, responsibility, perseverance, industry, honesty, and fair play. The putting out of any publication necessitates team play and coöperation. It develops initiative and alertness.

And the university educators have had ample evidence of the value of this training. It does not make any difference whether these high-school editors go into journalism, commerce, English, political science, history, chemistry, or any of the other departments of the university—they are so often the cream of the crop; somehow they have acquired greater mental alertness; they know what they are after; they have developed the qualities that make them better students. At Northwestern all new students have to take certain psychological tests, and the pre-journalism people, largely made up of former high-school editors, year after year have had higher scores than those of any other group in the university.

From the standpoint of the school and its faculty, student publications also have very definite values in unifying the school and fostering a healthy school spirit, in encouraging desirable school enterprises and activities, in influencing student opinion and providing a medium for the expression of that opinion, and in developing the interest of both students and their parents in the work of your school. Athletic teams, glee clubs, and dramatic clubs may represent your school in a more dramatic way, but your school publications probably develop better public relations between your school and its community than does any other activity.

I think we should also recognize the value of a journalistic writing course in your curriculum as a means of creating greater interest in English composition and English literature courses. This might well be a "reward" course for those who have received approved records in other writing courses. It probably should not be offered in place of but in addition to the regular senior English courses for those students who have the capacity to profit from both. This course would take up the principal newspaper and magazine forms—the news story, the feature article, the editorial, and the critical article. But the emphasis, it seems to me, should be on writing; improving the student's facility with language, improving his style, and encouraging his writing through the use of journalistic forms. Such a course should logically be tied up with work on student publications, and while you will have to teach them something about headline writing and make-up in order to help them get out their school newspapers, I do not think our high schools should go to the extent of offering formal courses under such professional titles as "Reporting" and "Copyreading." Let us keep it a writing course, preferably in our English departments. Let us not give these students an idea that they are getting professional training, or we shall be flooding the lower ranks of our profession with high-school boys and girls who have just enough of a smattering of technical knowledge to get jobs; and yet who are inadequately prepared for the serious demands of the newspaper profession.

I think there is also a place for a newspaper-reading course designed to develop good habits in newspaper reading—the reading of the important and significant news—to the end that high-school students may be graduated with a more intelligent understanding of the world about them. Such a course might also endeavor to develop in the minds of these young people an understanding of the newspaper, its social functions, and the part that it plays in American and world affairs.

I well remember an incident in Milwaukee when I was working on the *Milwaukee Journal*. The Men's Club of one of our churches was holding a forum on newspapers. Our chief editorial writer was invited up to defend the press, and I went along with him to listen in.

One after another, the members of the club got up and gave their criticisms of our papers. They said that our papers were filled with sensationalism; that they were feeding the public on salacious scandal—demoralizing character and depraving the mind. Important speeches on public affairs, they said, were cut down to a few meaningless paragraphs when they should have appeared in columns on the front page. The big spot of the attack centered around a certain sensational story that was just then running in the newspapers of the city—one of those triangle affairs, in which the life story of the "other woman" had been given a great deal of publicity. One of the members of the club maintained that "the minutest details of the abominable allegation of human depravity had been pictured."

And then our editorial writer got to his feet.

"How do you know it is printed in detail?" he inquired.

"Why I've read it," said the club member. "Haven't we all read it?"

"Exactly," said our editorial writer, "You've all read it, and what else have you read?"

And the members of that group seemed to have a fairly excellent knowledge of recent murders, divorces, scandals, and sports news.

"And do you know," continued our editorial writer, "that scattered all about these demoralizing columns, which really occupy only a small percentage of our space, are many other columns on taxation, city planning, forest conservation, unemployment insurance, business progress, human health, transportation problems, charitable efforts, and scientific achievements?"

A blank look came over the faces of the members of the forum.

"Do you read the speeches of informed men?" The message of the President of the United States had been printed in full a few nights before.

Not a single man present had read more than the boxed summary, giving the high spots of that address.

"Do you understand unemployment insurance, about which we've been printing a series of articles, running into many columns, for the past three weeks?"

Some few thought they did. Two admitted glancing over one or two of the articles.

Then our editorial writer lit into them.

"You complain of salacious scandal; yet that is the one thing you read in your papers. You ask for serious editorials; yet seldom look at them. But you read the comic strips through, from end to end. You expect civic consciousness on the part of the newspaper, and yet you shy away from reading a serious civic story as if you were afraid it might give you the smallpox.

"No, the writers know better what you really want than you who moralize here do yourselves. But the newspaper writers know something else. They know how to teach you gradually to want what you now think you want. They know that by continuing to feed those denied interests of yours with some scandal, some crime, and a lot of human-interest stories, comics, and features, you will read the newspapers they print and gradually, as you become better civilized, you will read less scandal and more constructive material. And they feed you sound, uplifting educational articles faster than you will take them."

Now, if such an indictment can be made of mature citizens, what shall we say of the students who usually start at the back end of the newspaper, read all the comic strips, and do the crossword puzzles? If they are boys, they scan the sport page; if they are girls, they read "Advice to the Lovelorn" and a trashy serial story, and let the newspaper go at that. We need more intelligent citizens; men and women who will take an intelligent interest in the social, political, and economic news which our papers are trying to give them; who will take an interest in public affairs instead of leaving the management of them to the politicians.

And such a reading course in our high schools—whether it be given in course number in English, history, or civics does not matter—might cultivate better newspaper-reading habits in our students and send them out as better citizens. Weekly discussions of important Washington news, foreign news, or state news can be developed on the basis of this kind of newspaper reading. Frequent news quizzes can be developed to check the student's reading. By the end of the semester the student should be reading at least all the front-page news of political, social, and economic implication. He will then have the beginning of a desirable newspaper-reading habit. Such a course would require the preparation of material with a mental resistance equal to that of a course in history—in fact, it will be history in the present tense.

Such courses as these which I have outlined are, it seems to me, within the province of high-school journalism.

PROFESSIONAL DISCUSSION IN THE HIGH-SCHOOL FACULTY

F. H. NORRIS

Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Richmond, Virginia

Frank and free discussion is not a panacea. There is nothing in this procedure which should lead us to think that we have found a solution to our problems. Some people seem to think that if you can get people to discuss problems and to air their views about certain questions, you will soon see a change within. A great deal will depend on the topics discussed, the clarity and power of the logic used, and a demonstrated application of the conclusions reached.

Our high-school faculties are discussing in their meetings the *Functions of Secondary Education*. A planning committee has planned the work and assigned each function to a committee for discussion and report. It is to be hoped that the discussion phase will continue to loom larger than the mere reporting of some one's views. Each should be able to read for himself the report, but it is only through discussion that the heart of the report can be brought out. Care must be taken to keep these groups active and participating groups, not mere listeners.

The most hopeful thing about these meetings is this: they are serving to put the improvement of instruction in the foreground and to keep the administrative phases secondary. To my mind the biggest obstacle in the way to improving secondary instruction is our own administrative machinery. No one can be blamed for that. We have all had a part in it. But a glaring weakness is evident when our own machinery of organization prevents us from improving the instructional side. The spirit of instruction can be improved regardless of our organization, and teachers should be made to realize that. After all, the secondary school, like the elementary, should exist for the pupils.

Our high-school faculties are fairly representative of what some call the vested interests of education. Specialization has gone far enough here to cause some to regard their field as the core around which all others should revolve. There is a great diversity in viewpoints as to the purpose of the high school. There is still a tendency to regard the high school as a series of departments rather than as a place to offer a pupil a well-rounded program.

It is to be hoped that these discussions will center teachers' attentions on the most important thing in education—

namely, a true teacher-learner relationship. If the teacher has the right attitude toward the learner, subject matter will also take its proper place. I am not sure these discussion groups will achieve that. Too many times we assume that we meet the needs of pupils by adding new courses, and overlook the teacher-learner relationship entirely. The most varied and richest curriculum that we might devise would have a low rating of efficiency if attitudes, methods, and personalities were left out.

The study of these problems should make us more tolerant of and interested in the views and problems of our fellow workers. That high-school faculty which is characterized by departmental jealousies and rivalries, which puts the academic on the throne and the practical outside, or vice versa, which places all blame for lack of progress on the learner, which considers college demands as their chief criterion, which places all blame for pupils' deficiencies on previous teaching, is hopelessly out of step with the demands being made on the modern school.

After a year's study of these problems, I do not see how any teacher can help feeling a greater awareness of these secondary demands. I think sometimes we are inclined to "shed" these questions on to some one else. If our present classes do not suit, why does not the principal form new ones, or why does the school board not hire a person to do this work or get the needed equipment?

Secondary teachers, as a rule, are anxious to improve their work, to make it vital and useful. They have become rather cynical or distrustful of recent innovations, however, because the theory is so far removed from their practice. Any educational improvement must start with the teachers' present situation. These group discussions should help teachers take stock of their present practices, their immediate problems, and their pressing needs. Then in the light of the best thinking of the day as to the desirable changes necessary, to help plan programs which will enable their respective schools to meet these demands.

The thing most needed in secondary education is the universal view that the high school must serve its community in every way possible; that it is no longer a selective agency working for colleges; that it must meet the needs of the boy who would and should be a carpenter, as well as the future professional man; that our organization, methods, and subject matter are means to an end, not the end.

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES OF OUR SCHOOL PROGRAM¹

ARTHUR WOODCOCK
Torrance High School, Torrance, California

Student-Adjustment Program

The most valuable service rendered the students of Torrance High School is the remarkably sympathetic and comprehensive student-adjustment program. The group in charge of this program is the Student Board of Control, composed of six students with the vice-principal as adviser. The Faculty Adjustment Committee, composed of ten faculty members, takes care of the more serious cases that are passed on to it by the Student Board of Control.

Instead of sending a small percentage of incorrigible boys or girls regarded as potential criminals to disciplinary institutions as quickly as possible—and as quickly forgetting them—our wide-awake, progressive principal, Mr. Thomas H. Elson, who has done much research in corrective citizenship, has set up a new system.

The background of every recalcitrant boy or girl is thoroughly investigated, whether the offense be minor or major. This investigation covers his physical condition and record, the economic conditions of his home, his family relationships, his temperament, his personal interests and characteristics, and his attitude toward his home, his teachers, and his studies. The results of the investigation are studied, and every effort is made to eliminate bad influences and forces that have led him into wrong pursuits.

However, before anything at all is done, the student is given every opportunity to speak in his own behalf. Oftentimes the boy or girl in question is aware of the factors that have put him or her on the wrong track and is glad of an opportunity to divulge them.

Recreational Program

High-school students are quick to take advantage of any opportunity to secure a few moments of escape from their regular work during school hours. In keeping with this desire a one-hour recreational period is being offered every other Friday. During this period over twenty different activities are offered. Included in the list are: athletics, hobbies, stamp collecting, journalism, mechanics of various sorts, aviation, languages, radio, badminton, writing for the annual, and many others. The main

¹The writer of this article is an honor student and prominent leader of several activities at the Torrance, California, High School. His journalism teacher, Miss Ethel Burnham, asked him to write a description of the distinctive features of the school which are carried out with the complete coöperation of the student body.

object of these periods is to furnish an opportunity for the students to develop beneficial leisure-time activities. It is hoped that the choice of an activity will be made with the future in mind.

Vocational Agriculture

Almost every student who enrolls in this course makes agriculture, in one of its many phases, his life's occupation. At school a farm-sized project is kept continually progressive and productive. The difficulties encountered in working the farm project serve as problems for the students to solve, giving them practical experience at the same time. The official government *Farm Bulletins* and a few farm magazines are used in addition to textbooks.

At home each student has his own individual project. For example, as a freshman he may have a small flock of baby chicks; the next year he might acquire a larger flock, with a few good layers; the following year perhaps a modern chicken house is added. Thus a small, independent industry is built up. By the time a student is ready to graduate he has a job waiting for him, with himself as his boss.

Although they all study together and learn the same things, there are two divisions of students; namely, the regular vocational agriculture students and the Future Farmers of America. The F.F.A., like any other club, has its own social functions—banquets, parties, trips, etc. Also, it sends special teams to Pomona every year to the California State Fair. A well-filled trophy case testifies to its achievements.

Vocational-Guidance Conference

The Vocational-Guidance Conferences are primarily for the purpose of permitting the student to come into direct contact with experienced, successful business men whose views and opinions are of value. Upon consenting to speak, the conference leaders are presented with an outline form of the points which they should cover in their addresses. (They may use it or not as they choose.) A few of these points are: education necessary, health and physical requirements, opportunity for promotion, hours, wages, and benefits derived. After the address the students are allowed, often urged, to ask questions about any points they wish made clearer. The committee in charge of the conference is composed of three students and an advisory board of seven teachers. The chairman of the committee keeps in contact with a member of the local Rotary Club who is appointed to work with the committee and to secure the speakers desired.

Another function that the committee carries out, in line with this type of education, is the maintenance of, and addition to, a shelf of vocational-guidance books. These books are up-to-date, practical aids to those interested. The chief professions and industries are analyzed in a simple, easily understandable manner.

Safety Commission

Our Safety Commission is a major unit in the government of the school. The chairman is a member of the Student Council. Members are selected by promotion, making it a continuing body. Replacements are proposed by members of the Commission and approved by the principal. Among the most important functions are periodic checkups on condition, location, and deficiencies of first-aid cabinets and supplies, fire hoses and alarm boxes, and reporting of any fire hazards. Traffic direction in the halls is carried out by a committee under the direct command of a member of the Commission. Quiet but efficient authority is exerted to regulate speed, relieve congestion, and lessen noise. Many high schools have systems of school government similar to that of Torrance High School. However, we feel that many of our features are sufficiently outstanding and worth-while that other schools might learn something of value to add to their programs.

ANNOUNCEMENT

The 1939 winter meeting (February, 1939) will be held in Cleveland, Ohio.

Hotel Cleveland will be the headquarters of the Department of Secondary-School Principals.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR DEVELOPMENT OF IMPROVED METHODS OF ACCREDITATION

Note: In the text of the address by Walter C. Eells, entitled "Bases For a New Method of Accrediting Secondary Schools," which was published in the March, 1938, number of THE BULLETIN, there were certain unfortunate errors and omissions in the published form of the eighteen fundamental principles upon which the "Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards" is based. As these principles are so basic to a proper understanding of the "Cooperative Study," correct statements of each of the eighteen principles, followed by brief explanatory paragraphs, are presented below.—H. V. CHURCH.

1. American secondary schools, much as they may differ in details, are essentially alike in their underlying purposes and organization.

The common purpose of all secondary schools is the transmission of racial culture and the development of the pupil, individually and as a member of society. They are alike in making use of individual teachers, in functioning in a school plant, in possessing a curriculum, in employing instructional methods, in presupposing a background of knowledge and skill secured in elementary school, in meeting several days a week for a major portion of a calendar year, and in many other respects. If such broad similarities as these did not exist, any common method of evaluation and accreditation would scarcely be feasible.

2. In a democracy the fundamental doctrine of individual differences is as valid for schools as for individuals. Schools, even good schools, differ from each other as markedly as do the children they are endeavoring to educate.

This means that there should be no flexible insistence upon uniformity and rigidity of organization, method, and standards for all secondary schools in all parts of the country through any artificially imposed accreditation procedures.

3. A school cannot be studied satisfactorily nor judged fairly except in terms of its own philosophy of education, its individually expressed purposes and objectives, the nature of the pupils with which it has to deal, and the needs of the community which it serves. Each school is free to determine its own educational destiny if not inconsistent with the democracy in which it functions.

This means that the public school and the private school, the Catholic school and the Protestant school, the urban school and the rural school, the large school and the small school must be judged by comprehensive, flexible standards rather than by narrow, uniform, and rigid ones.

4. Methods of evaluation and accreditation should recognize the differences in background, development, and existing conditions in different states and regions. No attempt now, if ever, should be encouraged to make them uniform for the nation or to have them administered from a single national office.

This means that the same norms cannot fairly be used for judging the plant, the curriculum, the library, and other features in Maine and Montana, in California and Connecticut, in Vermont and Virginia, in New York and New Mexico. It is desired that studies be made and procedures summarized on a nation-wide basis, but that application of them be made on a regional, or state, or even local basis, with due regard to variations in local conditions and educational, economic, and social background.

5. It is more significant to measure what the school does than what it is or what it has. The educational process and product are more important to evaluate than the machinery and equipment.

This means that all phases of the school—plant, staff, program—are to be evaluated chiefly as functioning units, not primarily as static ones; that the program, the methods of administering it, and its results are the chief matters to be considered.

6. A school must be judged as a whole, not merely as the unrelated sum of its separate parts.

This means that accreditation will not necessarily be refused because a school is weak in one feature or fails to meet a particular standard. Possible deficiency in one field may be excusable or even desirable, or may be more than compensated for by superiority in another field or fields. The general level of the school's work and the interrelationships of the different phases of it will need to be considered.

7. Methods of accreditation, as far as possible, should be based upon scientific studies and objective evidence rather than upon untested assumptions and unsupported opinions.

This means that the results of research studies and other recent scientific investigations of secondary education should be given full consideration in the development of better methods. Standard tests, approved measuring instruments, valid scales, and similar devices should be used—but they should be used intelligently, not blindly.

8. The considered judgment of competent educators is an essential factor in the evaluation of the quality and character of the work of a school.

This principle is not in conflict with the preceding one, but is supplementary to it. It means that while statistical data are necessary, they are not sufficient. There should be a judicious mixture of the subjective and of the objective. Statistical method cannot replace expert judgment, but it can form a much better basis for the legitimate and helpful exercise of such judgment. Judgment should be based upon all the scientific evidence and other objective data available, not on guesswork or hunches. Evaluation should be based upon a careful study by a committee of competent educators who will spend sufficient time in the school to familiarize themselves with all important phases of the work.

9. A valid method of accreditation and evaluation, based tentatively upon existing research studies and expert judgment, should be fully tested and carefully evaluated by extensive experimental tryout in a large group of typical, representative secondary schools throughout the country.

This is simply a recognition of the common scientific procedure that theory should be tested by experiment, and is an application of it in the educational field. In the case of the Coöperative Study, two hundred carefully selected schools have been used as the basis for the validation of the materials and procedures which it expects to recommend.

10. While it is desirable in many respects that absolute standards or levels of achievement should be developed, it is recognized that in most of the important aspects of a school's work the best basis for the development of useful standards will probably be the practices in other comparable schools.

While we may know the definite character and amount of apparatus necessary for an experiment in physics or chemistry for a class of a

given size, we do not know the optimum number of books for a library, the most desirable outcomes in the teaching of English, or the best methods of supervision. In such cases, after as valid measurements or evaluations as possible have been made, the adequacy of the school in these fields must be judged, in part, by comparison with other schools measured by the same methods.

11. A school should be judged in terms of the extent to which it meets satisfactorily the needs of all pupils who come to it, not alone of those who continue their formal education in institutions of higher learning.

Standards have been dominated in many cases, if not completely determined, by college admission criteria. This principle means that it is not sufficient to evaluate the school merely in terms of the success of its graduates in the college and university, important as this may be as one element; it must be evaluated also in terms of its success in giving an education for successful living—economic, social, and personal—to the young people who do not go on to college.

12. A good school is a growing school. It should be judged by its progress between two different dates as well as by its status at a single date.

This means, as Oliver Wendell Holmes once observed, that "it is not nearly so important where we stand as the direction in which we are going." A poor school which is steadily improving may be more worthy of accreditation than a much better school which is steadily deteriorating.

13. Any useful, stimulating, and valid method of accreditation must be flexible with the passage of time; that is, it must be capable of reasonable modification, from year to year, as new bases of evaluation and different levels of achievements are suggested or developed from the use of existing ones.

Change is a universal law. Methods of accreditation, like schools themselves, must be constantly changing if they are to keep up to date. Methods which are flexible in their application to a particular school, which recognize valid differences between schools and between their purposes and their pupils, will be such as to be easily modified also with the passage of time and the benefit of experience.

14. The number of factors evaluated in the modern secondary school must be sufficiently large and varied to give valid evidence of worth in each of the main areas of the school's work.

This means that the accreditation of a school on the basis of a small number of rigid measures is insufficient to give a valid measure of all essential aspects of the educational program.

15. Accrediting procedures and materials must be brief enough in extent and convenient enough in form to be practicable for use in all secondary schools.

This principle must be considered in connection with the preceding one, and a proper balance struck between the two. Materials must be brief enough to be usable but long enough to be valid. Extensive sampling is required rather than complete measurement. The samples, however, must be significant factors that really characterize the school and have been proved to possess real discriminative value. Criteria should take as a model not the photographer, who with his lens takes in everything in sight, but the artist, who skillfully selects the significant elements in the landscape and uses them to suggest details, all of which do not appear explicitly on the canvas.

16. If criteria for evaluation are sufficiently flexible, extensive, and thorough, it is not essential that they be applied annually.

This means that complete evaluation of a school may need to be made only at regular or irregular intervals of several years. Changes of administration or other unusual conditions may justify reconsideration of accreditation at special times. Partial evaluations may be made at intervening periods. Continuous self-evaluation is important.

17. The basis and methods of accreditation should be such as to require interest and participation in the process on the part of the entire professional and non-professional staffs of the school.

This means that the basis of accreditation cannot be limited to statistical blanks filled out by clerical assistants or even to information furnished by the principal alone. It should be a co-operative process, involving mutual criticism and suggestion by the entire staff. Criteria should be such as to stimulate frequent if not continuous consideration and discussion by the school staff, regardless of whether or not a visit by a committee of competent educators is anticipated.

18. The primary function of accreditation by the state or regional association should be stimulation toward continuous growth and improvement, not merely inspection and admission to membership.

This means that the conception of the state or regional organization as an inspectorial or police agency gives way to one of mutual friendliness, helpfulness, and stimulation to constant improvement of all schools, good or poor. While accreditation for college admission may be based on relatively few factors, stimulation of a school to become a better school makes a much more extensive body of criteria both desirable and necessary. Such stimulation requires attention not only to such factors as may discriminate between the good school and the poor school but constant attention to all factors or elements common to all types of schools, now and in the future. Nothing is more common than essentials. Not all essentials discriminate, but they must not be neglected; rather they, too, must be improved. Mere accreditation is not sufficient. It is simply the first step in a continuous process. In a democracy a school should not be satisfied with being *good*; it should strive constantly to become *better*.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PUPIL ACTIVITIES

The following report is presented in the columns of THE BULLETIN in order that the membership as a whole may have an opportunity to express an opinion on the policies proposed by the committee.

Appointed in the summer of 1937, the Committee on Pupil Activities carried on a discussion of the report through correspondence and in two extended committee meetings at the time of the Atlantic City meeting. It interpreted its function to be that of proposing basic principles and policies which should guide the National Department in its relation to organizations sponsoring activities, and which might be of service to individual principals confronted with problems in this field.

If the report is to be of maximum service to the Department, it should receive thorough discussion and criticism by the membership. To this end, individual principals and regional discussion groups are urged to submit their reactions to the policies proposed. Cooperation of professors of secondary education is invited by providing for discussion of the report in summer-school classes dealing with extra-curriculum activities—Edgar G. Johnston, Chairman, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

TO THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, THE COMMITTEE ON PUPIL ACTIVITIES SUBMITS THE FOLLOWING REPORT

- I. *The Department's Interest in the Extra-Curriculum Program.*
From its inception, the National Association of Secondary-School Principals demonstrated a recognition of values to be secured through the extra-curriculum program and of the necessity for their intelligent direction. At the first annual meeting in Kansas City in February, 1917, one of the chief addresses was that on "Supervised Student Activities in the School Program," by the late Edward Rynearson of Pittsburgh. A continued interest in the various phases of this program may be discerned in the addresses and discussions at the succeeding annual conferences as well as in the committee reports of the Department. "Organization of the Social Life of the High School," "Student Participation in School Organization and Government," "Training for Democracy," "Social Problems in the High School," "The Growth of Character Through Participation in Extracurriculum Activities," "Sane and Systematic Direction of Extracurriculum Activities," are among some of the topics appearing in Proceedings of the Association at its earlier meetings. A committee to consider the formation of an honor society was appointed at the Chicago meeting in 1919, and the proposed constitution was adopted and the society formed under the sheltering wing of the National Department the following year.

A discussion of interscholastic athletics at the meeting of 1924 resulted in the appointment of a committee which reported at Cincinnati the following year, endorsing the National Association of State High-School Athletic Associations as the proper agency to express the interest of the Department in the athletic field. The committee went on record as opposed to participation of girls in interscholastic athletics and urging the restriction of intersectional and post-season athletic games. The Department was instrumental in the organization of the Committee on Research in Secondary Education, which came into being at the Cincinnati meeting in 1925. Various phases of the extra-curriculum program have been investigated in conjunction with the activities of this committee and have been published in THE BULLETIN of the Department.

Clear as are the evidences of the interest of the National Department in the constructive development of the extra-curriculum program and valuable as its contributions have been, it must be recognized that its approach to problems in this field has been fragmentary and sporadic. Through the reports of the Committee on Orientation and the work of the Planning Committee the Department is in posi-

tion to influence significantly the development of secondary education. A more systematic study of the extra-curriculum program is timely. As the organization representative of those chiefly responsible for the determination of policies in the secondary schools of the United States, it is appropriate for the Department to give serious attention to the general principles which should guide the development of the extra-curriculum program and the relationship of the Department to individual schools and to regional groups. Current discussions of curriculum development emphasize the concept of the curriculum as "All the experiences children have under the guidance of teachers." Obviously under such a definition of curriculum, extra-curriculum activities as a separate and distinct phase of school organization tend to disappear and are absorbed into the curriculum. Probably in most schools, however, the reorientation of teaching staff and method which will make this possible will not have been attained for some time to come. We may look to see a transitional stage of development in which extra-curriculum activities as a somewhat separate part of the school program continue to supplement a meager curriculum and to mitigate the shortcomings of traditional teaching.

II. *Basic Principles Which Should Underlie Department Policy.*

1. The so-called extra-curriculum activities provide a rich resource for desirable learning. Schools should be encouraged to organize their programs in such a way that extra-curriculum activities may make a maximum contribution to the total school offering.
 - (a) Accepted statements of the responsibility of the secondary school give an important place to the development of desirable attitudes. Properly organized activities have a special contribution to make in this field. Fretwell's thesis: "It is the business of the school to organize the whole situation so that there is a favorable opportunity for everyone, teachers as well as pupils, to practice the qualities of the good citizen here and now with results satisfying to the one doing the practicing"; is familiar to everyone. The contribution of such activities as the student council, the assembly, and the home room in attaining this objective should be capitalized.
 - (b) Current thought in the field of psychology emphasizes the significance of learning through active participation and the importance of considering various phases of the child's experience in relationship to each other, not in isolation. A modern educational program cannot be based on passive lesson-hearing, nor can the responsibility of the school be limited to what takes place in the classroom only.
2. Influences of the home and the community environment modify significantly the outcomes of the school's program. In some instances outside agencies supplement helpfully the learning situation of the school; in other cases they represent a serious obstacle to the attainment of the school's objectives, especially in the matter of developing desirable attitudes. It seems evident that these outside environmental influences deserve much more attention than they have received in the past on the part of individual teachers and administrators and by organized professional groups, both to capitalize constructive contributions to the total educational program and to minimize or eliminate undesirable influences.
3. Many problems of the school community are vital citizenship problems to pupils. An increasing number of schools is utilizing these problems in training pupils to coöperate effectively in an attack upon matters of group concern. Such training may well serve pupils for later membership in service groups or in women's clubs. As citizenship training, however, this alone is not sufficiently broad and inclusive. Problems of a political or economic nature appear too infrequently in the school community to provide training in these important areas of citizenship. The attention of the Department may well be directed toward discovering and encouraging those practices which bridge the gap between school and out-of-school citizenship. The recent volume

"Youth Serves the Community" by Paul Hanna presents a number of illustrations of actual participation by pupils in community betterment.

4. Whether extra-curriculum activities be thought of as a distinct division of the school program or as a phase of the curriculum broadly conceived, the responsibility rests on the school for their adequate supervision. Supervision should be advisory and encouraging rather than restrictive. It certainly cannot be overlooked. Parents will rightly look to the staff and the administration of a school for soundly considered educational activities leading toward desirable outcomes.

5. The school program should be so organized as to permit a maximum degree of pupil leadership in planning and carrying out activities and evaluating outcomes. This is increasingly recognized as desirable in the activities of the classroom. It is indispensable to a successful program of extra-curriculum activities. Much of the vitality of the extra-curriculum program has inhered in the degree to which activities have given play to student initiative and responsibility.

6. Care must be observed to avoid crystallization of the activity program into set procedures or forms of organization. The program should be flexible and easily adaptable to local conditions and the needs of individual pupils. In the case of organizations formed to encourage a particular activity care must be taken not to lose sight of the aims common to the entire program. There is danger of developing vested interests which resist change and hinder progress.

7. In developing the various phases of the extra-curriculum program the competitive urge should not be over-emphasized. This applies both to the traditional athletic contests and to interscholastic competitions developed in other fields. There is danger that the competitive urge may be allowed to overshadow more important outcomes of the activity and to limit the extent of participation. Furthermore, definitely antisocial attitudes may be developed where personal vainglory or group selfishness becomes a dominant motive and friendly rivalry gives way to the desire to win at any cost.

8. Encouragement should be given to coöperative effort in the solution of problems within the school and between schools. The development of the spirit of friendliness and growth in the spirit of service arise from coöperative enterprises which call for self-sacrifice and which are seen as causes worthy of individual and group services. The activities of the student council and vital assembly programs are illustrative of such enterprises within the schools. Conferences of student leaders in a number of counties, regions, and in some states are indicative of inter-school relationships which exalt coöperation above competition. Such constructive ventures as play days involving pupils from all the high schools in a city, community, or regional music festivals where no awards are given, and exchange assembly programs among schools illustrate the possibilities of developing friendliness and minimizing the competitive motive. A school which has a bitter rival in interscholastic contests might well consider playing host to the student leaders of the recognized organizations of its traditional rival. The development of larger loyalties depends upon the growth of such coöperative undertakings among the schools.

9. The relationship of the National Department to individual schools and to regional organizations should be one of encouragement and advice. It should suggest promising lines of development and provide assistance in solution of problems but should not hamper the freedom of the individual unit to develop a program suitable to its needs.

III. Recommended Policies.

1. Relation To National Organizations Sponsoring Activities.

A considerable number of national organizations has grown up organized to promote fuller recognition and development of specific types of activity. Examples are to be found in the National Scholastic Press Association, the National Association of Student Officers, The National Honor Society, and various groups representing forensics, dramatics, and athletics. The function of the Department in relation to these organizations

would seem to be through publicity and in other ways to assist them in making the particular activity more effective in achieving the desirable ends sought and to coördinate the interests of the various groups which have to do with secondary-school pupils. It may at times be necessary to restrain the enthusiasm of a group promoting a special activity to the disadvantage of the total school program. Now that the Chinese walls which have separated the subjects of the traditional curriculum are breaking down, it would be unfortunate if a new compartmentalization should be set up within the relatively new territory of the extra-curriculum.

One question which should receive the thoughtful consideration of the Department is that of national conventions of secondary-school organizations. There are undoubtedly advantages to be gained in enlarged horizons and in stimulus to more effective activity through meetings of student leaders. These advantages may be realized through the organization of community, regional, and state associations. It is felt that national organizations may serve best by aiding such area groups in the definition of desirable objectives, by making suggestions regarding policies, projects, and programs and by functioning as a clearinghouse for information.

National conventions attended by a limited number of representatives from each of the various states or groups of states may serve well the needs for greater vision, solidarity, and mutual understanding. The limitation of attendance would greatly reduce the problems of finance and promotion and also the responsibility for pupil housing, supervision, entertainment, and protection. Attendance at national conventions should not overshadow other and more significant means of promoting the functions of the organization.

2. *Relation to General Character-Building Organizations Sponsored by Non-School Agencies.*

Most communities are fortunate in having a number of non-school agencies interested in promoting the welfare of boys and girls of high-school age. Examples are to be found in the Boy Scouts of America, The Hi-Y, Camp Fire Girls, Girls Scouts, etc. The relation of the school to these organizations should be one of mutual assistance. Close coöperation of school authorities with local representatives of all organizations contributing to the welfare of young people is to be encouraged. A constructive program for helpful relationship with reference to one such organization has been suggested by Wyland.* The plan has been followed in some communities of organizing a "Coöordinating Council," composed of representatives of all agencies interested in the welfare of youth, including schools, churches, probation officers, and "character-building" organizations. This plan has been developed with marked success in California.

A caution seems important with respect to the relationship of the school and other agencies interested in "character building." The school is the one agency outside the home with responsibility to society for all youth. Support of the programs of other agencies should not be allowed to interfere with the provision of equal opportunity for all in the school program. Certainly the obligation to coöperate with other character-building agencies should not divert attention of school people from their own measure of responsibility for the optimum development of all youths committed to their charge. *It would seem desirable that there be school control of any unit of an outside organization which carries the school name.*

3. *Relation to Other Non-School Agencies Serving Youth.*

Closely related to the type of agency discussed under number two, but in a somewhat different classification is a group of organizations representing a particular section of the community or formed to promote a special point of view on an issue on which

*Ray O. Wyland, "Scouting in the Schools of New York," Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934, pp. 150-153.

community opinion is divided. In this classification would fall such organizations as religious groups, junior chambers of commerce, Junior Kiwanians, Young Peoples' Socialistic League, Young Pioneers, and similar organizations representative of one segment of community opinion. An amazing number of organizations designed to enlist and influence youth**has sprung into existence. The competition for school attention by such organized groups may tend to disintegrate the curriculum. There is also the danger that organizations with idealistic aim, vaguely defined, may become tools of reactionary or radical interests with axes to grind.

It would seem desirable for school buildings and facilities to be available on equal terms for meetings of such groups where this can be done without interference with school activities or curtailment of the school program. This would be consistent with the generally accepted policy of most boards of education making school meeting places available to any legally constituted groups in a community and, in particular, of maintaining the school as a community center.

Sponsorship by individual schools or by the Department of organizations in this category would seem unwise. It is not the intention of the committee to indicate that the school should avoid discussion of important controversies. Its aim should be to encourage pupils to consider critical issues, to assist them to secure as complete and accurate data as possible, and to allow them to reach their own conclusions. For the school to identify itself with one section of public opinion through endorsement of an *ex parte* organization would be open to legitimate objection by those holding different views.

4. *Relation to Community Agencies and Activities.*

An encouraging tendency in recent years has been the effort of schools to provide first-hand contact with community agencies and activities through carefully planned field trips. This is decidedly advantageous. A much more vital understanding of community problems is possible where pupils know something of the background of these problems at first hand. The Department may render a service through study of legal difficulties and other obstacles to adequate use of this source of enrichment.

Still more encouraging is the participation of pupils in an organized way in assisting in the solution of community problems and in improvement of the community. Professor Hanna's recent volume, *Youth Serves the Community*, recounts a large number of instances in which young people have made practical and significant contributions to community welfare. Certain limitations and safeguards obviously suggest themselves. Fields of inquiry and activity should be appropriate to the maturity of the pupils. Projects should be such as to render real assistance to the community—not mere "busy work." The trend as a whole is one which the Department should encourage.

5. *Attitude on Contests.*

The competitive phase of extra-curriculum activities has been emphasized in the public mind and has frequently been encouraged by school authorities. This has been especially true of athletics but has also found a place in the promotion of debating, music, dramatics, and "academic contests." The place of competition in the school program is a moot question. Advantages are found in the stimulus to improved performance, the development of teamwork, interschool relationships, and broadened experience through trips to other communities. On the negative side are placed the over-emphasis on winning, the concentration on training a small number of competitors, semi-professionalization, the strain of extended competition, unwholesome emphasis on publicity and personal glory, and, on occasion, exploitation of pupils to enhance the reputation of a sponsor or a community.

**M. M. Chambers, "Youth Serving Organizations, A Preliminary Report of the American Youth Commission." The American Council on Education, 1937.

The attitude of the Department should discourage the abuses prevalent in secondary-school competition. Restriction of athletic competition has been urged by the National Federation of State High-School Athletic Associations and by a committee of the North Central Association.***

The National Department of Secondary-School Principals as early as 1924 appointed a committee to investigate inter-scholastic athletics. State associations of high-school principals in several states have gone on record for restriction or elimination of contests in other fields. *The topic of Interscholastic Contests is so broad that the Committee recommends a comprehensive study of contests by a committee for report at the 1939 meeting.*

6. *Methods of Financing Extra-Curriculum Activities.*

Methods of financing extra-curriculum activities should be scrutinized from the standpoint of educational outcomes as well as business efficiency and sound accounting practice. In some communities, methods of obtaining revenue for activities are thinly disguised begging; in other cases the poorer pupils are deprived of participation because of the methods used. The question of "pay assemblies" should be carefully examined. A study of the whole question of sources of income, methods of distribution, and accounting procedures for extra-curriculum activities among the schools of the Department should prove valuable. *It is recommended that a committee be appointed to make such a study.*

7. *Relation to State Departments or Associations of High-School Principals.*

In the regulation and guidance of extra-curriculum activities, as in other phases of secondary-school administration, the function of the National Department should be formulation and recommendation of policies of general application and stimulus and support to state groups in developing desirable programs of activities in their own areas. State groups should be encouraged to sponsor investigations in the extra-curriculum field and to make recommendations to the National Department on the basis of their experience.

The forthcoming report of the Committee on Needed Research in Secondary Education should suggest important lines of investigation both for state groups and for the National Department. Graduate students in higher institutions of learning could be interested in pursuing investigations of some of the problems which are considered most pressing.

8. *Use of Department Publications.*

The Committee on Publications is to be commended for its recent report and for the new policies on Department publications put into effect this year. It is recommended that the monthly BULLETIN of the Department be utilized as a major avenue of communication to the membership of recommended policies in regard to activities and of discussion of issues involved. Articles describing successful programs in individual schools, reports of research investigations, and discussions of newer tendencies in line with recent curriculum trends should all find a place in THE BULLETIN.

In line with the emphasis on student initiative and participation, the sponsorship by the Department of the publication STUDENT LIFE is to be commended. Through it high-school pupils should have an important place in the evolution of the activity program. That portion of the report of the Publications Committee which deals with STUDENT LIFE presents an admirable statement of purposes and desired outcomes for such a publication. To date the magazine would not appear to have realized the standard set by the Committee. A more vigorous editorial policy and more adequate coverage of high-school news are to be desired. The Activities Committee recommends that all high schools represented in the Department be requested to place the central office on the mailing

***Morley, E. E., Chairman, "The Report of the Committee on Athletics in Secondary Schools," North Central Association Quarterly, 6:21-30, June, 1931. 7-287-290, December, 1932.

list and that high-school publications be used as sources for news items of outstanding accomplishment or innovating practices and for examples of creative expression by high-school students. The Committee views with some concern the offer by STUDENT LIFE of monetary rewards as motivation for student contributions. This practice is in conflict with principles outlined elsewhere in this report as applicable to student contests in extra-curriculum activities.

It is to be hoped that sufficient financial support and editorial assistance may be provided to make the publication outstanding in its appeal to high-school pupils and as a picture of life in the high schools of America.

COMMITTEE ON PUPIL ACTIVITIES

Edgar G. Johnston, Chairman
Bertie Backus
Aubrey A. Douglass
Galen Jones.
Owen A. Emmons

Atlantic City
February 28, 1938

BOOK NOTES

The Effect of Population Changes on American Education. Educational Policies Commission. National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators, 1938. Pp. 58. \$50.

The bulletin points out that the census of 1930, for the first time in American history, showed fewer children under five years of age than from five to nine years old. The study interprets this and other population trends in terms of occupational shifts, internal movements of population, sex ratios, marital conditions, social and economic conditions, and health conditions, as well as trends in elementary, secondary, and higher education. Pictorial interpretations of statistics lend interest to the study and dramatize the findings contained therein.

The Sixth Yearbook of School Law. Edited by M. M. Chambers. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1938. Pp. viii+150. \$1.00. (Paper.)

A comprehensive digest of decisions of the higher courts in all states involving school law during 1937, the volume features detailed reviews of the various phases of school law written by specialists in each field. Following are the subjects covered in the current volume: Rights of Pupils and Parents; The Teacher's Contract, and Certification, Appointment and Dismissal of Teachers; Teachers' Tenure; Teachers: Retirement, Pensions, and Workmen's Compensation; Local School Officers; Local School Corporations; County School Administration; Management and Control of School Property; Federal Aid for Educational Projects; School Contracts Other than for Teaching; Tort Liability of School Districts and School Personnel; School District Indebtedness; Taxation for Public Education; Creation and Alteration of School Districts; State School Administration; State and Municipal Institutions of Higher Education; Private Schools and Colleges, Educational Trusts, and Taxation.

Ford, Frederick Arthur, *The Instructional Program.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938. Pp. xvi+458. \$2.75.

In this book the author has reviewed the principles of learning and what he considers the more acceptable educational goals. He believes that the state should have a more definite program of education, with these goals as a foundation, and that educators have given too much emphasis to the mastery of tool subjects and too little to developing the ability in students to utilize the tool subjects in living happily and profitably with the group.

Sanford, Chester M. *Developing Teacher Personality That Wins.* New York: Row, Peterson and Co. 1938. Pp. 160. \$1.60.

In recent years, Mr. Sanford has devoted his entire time to educational and vocational guidance and to lecturing before professional gatherings. The contents of this book are the result of direct experience. The aim is to point the way through specific suggestions to the development of the kind of personality that makes for a successful teaching career.

Bennett, Margaret E. and Hand, Harold C. *Designs for Personality*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xiii+222. \$1.36.

Bennett, Margaret E. and Hand, Harold C. *Beyond High School*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xv+227.

Designs for Personality is the second in the series which Bennett and Hand have prepared for the use of high-school counselors and administrators in group guidance. *School and Life*, the first of this series, which was mentioned in the February number of THE BULLETIN, presented the typical problems students encounter in first-year high school. *Designs for Personality* aims to present material which will be helpful in guiding the pupil toward wholesome, objective self-appraisal by thoughtful observation of the people about him in his daily life, and by tolerant evaluation of the effectiveness of their varied types of behavior and life adjustment. In the third volume, *Beyond High School*, the student is invited to face and to study realistically the major perplexities which will be encountered when high-school days are over. Such problems as education after high school, vocations, leisure time, practical citizenship, and philosophy of life are discussed.

Dearborn, Walter F. and Rothney, John W. M. *Scholastic, Economic, and Social Backgrounds of Unemployed Youth*. Harvard Bulletins in Education, No. 20. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938. Pp. xi+172. \$1.50.

This volume contains an analysis of the backgrounds of fourteen hundred young persons of Massachusetts. The study was made possible by grants from the N.Y.A. and F.E.R.A. The mental and physical development of the young people studied had been recorded for twelve years by the staff of the Harvard Growth Study. The purpose of the study was to find answers to such questions as the following: What are the characteristics, sociological, psychological, anthropological, educational, and economic of the unemployed youth? Are the brightest, most ambitious, and best educated, the best achievers, the best attending, and the least tardy at school the persons who are most likely to be selected by employers? Do youths want to work? How do they go about getting jobs, and which methods are most successful?

Carlson, Dick. *Personal Development Manual*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1937. Pp. xii+69.

Clemo, Margaret E.; Everett, Laura B.; and Everett, Elizabeth A. *The Arch of Experience*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1936. Pp. xi+408. \$1.36.

Education Against Propaganda. Edited by Elmer Ellis. Seventh Year-book of the National Council for Social Studies, 1937. Pp. v+182. \$2.00.

Fitzgerald, James A.; Hoffman, Carl A.; and Bayston, John R. *Drive and Live*. Richmond, Virginia: Johnson Publishing Co., 1937. Pp. xiv+288. \$1.28. (\$.96 wholesale.)

Floherty, John J. *Youth at the Wheel*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1937. Pp. 168.

Gabler, Earl R.; and Frederick, Robert W. *Methods of Teaching in Junior and Senior High Schools*. A guide book. New York: Inor Publishing Co., 1937. Pp. xvii+211. \$1.55. (Workbook, revised edition.)

Langfitt, R. E.; Cyr, F. W.; and Newsom, N. W. *The Small High School at Work*. New York: American Book Company, 1936. Pp. xi+660.

Lay, W. A. *Experimental Pedagogy*. Translated by Adolf Weil and Emanuel K. Schwartz, with an introduction by Paul R. Radosavljevich. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1936. Pp. x+371. \$2.25.

McHale, Kathryn, and Valiant, Frances. *Newer Aspects of Collegiate Education*. Washington: American Association of University Women, 1936. Pp. 67. \$.50. (Paper.)

- Mulgrave, Dorothy I. *Speech for the Classroom Teachers.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1936. Pp. xxiv+398. \$1.60.
- Skinner, Charles E., editor. *Educational Psychology.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1936. Pp. xxvi+754. \$3.00.
- Smith, Reed. *Learning to Write.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1937. Pp. xvi+544. \$1.68.
- Studies in Group Behavior.* Edited by Grace L. Coyle. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1937. Pp. x+258. \$2.75.
- Thomas, Russell. *Plays and the Theatre.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1937. Pp. viii+729. \$1.68.
- Wheat, Harry G. *The Psychology and Teaching of Arithmetic.* Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1937. Pp. x+591. \$2.80.
- Whitney, Frederick L. *The Elements of Research.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937. Pp. xvii+616. \$3.50.
- Wood, Clement. *Carelessness: Public Enemy No. 1.* New York: Hillman-Curl Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. 93. \$1.00.

CALENDAR OF PROFESSIONAL MEETINGS

- Ninth Annual School Administrators Conference, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, June 9-11.
- American Library Association, Kansas City, Missouri, June 13-18.
- Conference on Reading Problems for Administrators, Supervisors, and Teachers, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, June 23-25.
- Department of Secondary-School Principals, New York, New York, June 26-30.
- National Education Association—New York, June 26-30, 1938.
- Adult Education, New York, New York, June 27-29.
- Art Education, New York, New York, June 27-28.
- Deans of Women, New York, New York, June 27-29.
- Educational Research, New York, New York, June 29.
- Rural Education, New York, New York, June 27-29.
- School Health and Physical Education, New York, New York, June 27-29.
- National Education of Teachers of Mathematics—New York, June 27-29, 1938.
- Science Instruction, New York, New York, June 27-30.
- Social Studies, New York, New York, June 27-29.
- Special Education, New York, New York, June 27-28.
- Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, New York, New York, June 28-29.
- Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics, New York, New York, June 27, 28, 29.
- Visual Instruction, New York, New York, June 27-29.
- Vocational Education, New York, New York, June 27-29.
- American Classical League, New York, New York, June 27-29.
- Conference on Industrial Arts, New York, New York, June 28-29.
- National Association of Journalism Directors of Secondary Schools, New York, New York, June 29-30.
- National Association of School Secretaries, New York, New York, June 28-30.
- Fifth Annual Conference on Business Education, The School of Business, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, June 30-July 1.
- Seventeenth Annual Printing Conference, Washington, D. C., July 1-3.
- Conference on Social Education, Stanford University, California, July 6-10.
- Conference of Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, July 18-22.
- Second World Youth Congress, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York, August 17-25.
- The fourth annual summer conference of the Associated Academic Principals of New York State will be held at Colgate University, Hamilton, on August 21, 22, 23.
- Council of School Superintendents—Saranac Inn, September 26-27, 1938.
- New York State Association of District Superintendents—Schenectady, September 27, 28, 29, 1938.
- Associated Academic Principals, Syracuse, December 27, 28, 29, 1938.

NEWS ITEMS

AS THIS IS THE FINAL NUMBER of THE BULLETIN for 1937-38, perhaps it will not be amiss to list some high points in the work of the Department of Secondary-School Principals during the year. Among the outstanding achievements are the following: (1) THE BULLETIN has been issued eight times during the year instead of five as formerly, and its contents and format have been greatly improved. (2) A publication entitled STUDENT LIFE has been developed to encourage better practice in student activities in secondary schools. (3) An organization has been built up for carrying on the nationwide program of discussion groups which are functioning as a project of the Department's Committee on Planning. (4) Material on the problems and current movements in secondary education has been published for use of leaders and groups which are at work in the field. (5) A number of Department Committees have been active during the year in working on various phases of secondary education. (6) The Program presented at Atlantic City on the problems and tendencies in secondary schools was one of the largest and most successful gatherings in the history of the Department. (7) Growth in the membership in the Department has been consistent with the extension of services.

A NEW PROPOSAL for solving the youth problems of to-day has been made by John W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education. In an address at the Atlantic City meeting of school administrators, Dr. Studebaker said: "One way to solve the vexing youth problem of today might be to put it up to the young people themselves as a subject of high-school study. Let the young people in the course gather all the documents being issued on the so-called *Youth* problem with all of its ramifications, and study and discuss this literature. Then let them reach decisions on what can be done to change and vitalize the school curriculum to which they have been subjected. Let them appraise the facilities of the community for youth in recreational, vocational, and other fields. At the close of the course they might get out a report with recommendations. It would be the social, economic, and political approach to their own problems: unemployment, social security, and many others. There are plenty of courses on Socrates and Napoleon for youth; why not a course on youth for youth?"

THE DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS, in attempting to work out an integrated secondary curriculum, have agreed upon three types of courses: (1) Core course, (2) Special Interest course, and (3) Fields courses. The core course constitutes that part of the total school curriculum in which an endeavor is made to assist all pupils in meeting those needs that are most common to them and to society without regard to any subject matter classification. Special interest courses include those courses which are frankly intended to meet the special needs, interests, and abilities of particular pupils. In some schools it may seem desirable to include an intermediate classification of fields courses that are more generalized in nature than special interest courses. Such courses are often referred to as survey courses. They may serve as a means of transition from the core course to special interest courses, although that would not always be necessary.

CONSUMER MATHEMATICS, a new subject open to all pupils, was started this semester at the Reading, Pennsylvania, High School. This course is planned for one year's work, but one semester, either first or second, may be taken separately during tenth, eleventh, or twelfth grade. Many students feel that there is too great a gap between the conventional courses in algebra, geometry, trigonometry, and actual life. Therefore, for the pupils whose schedules demand mathematics, this subject will be presented. It includes, in addition to the fundamentals of mathematics, the concepts, principles of percentage, home owning, intelligent buying, installment buying, taxes, insurance, saving programs, banking, invest-

ment, social security, travel, transportation, communication, graph interpretation, practical mensuration, and the use of formulas.

IN THE GROUP GUIDANCE PROGRAM of the Seattle, Washington, junior and senior high schools, the following list of subjects have been used: courtesy; honesty and fair play; citizenship—care of property; vocational choice; school attendance—regularity and punctuality; sportsmanship; study habits; health; personality traits—character; educational guidance; recognition of propaganda; recreational interests—leisure; and traffic and safety. Following is a list of agencies and means which are employed: home rooms, roll rooms, and advisory groups; classes, assemblies, regular group organizations, forums; school papers, bulletins; movies; vocational conferences; and dramatization.

OFFICIAL COURSES OF STUDY for teaching safety in high schools have been prepared in eighteen states and the District of Columbia, according to the National Conservation Bureau. The following are the eighteen states: Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Colorado, Nebraska, California, Iowa, Texas, and Virginia. The following states have similar courses now in preparation: Missouri, New York, Rhode Island, Kansas, Illinois, Utah, Louisiana, and Oklahoma.

THE MYSTERY OF STUDY-HALL MANAGEMENT will be solved by a forthcoming book to be published by Macmillan. It starts with the premise that the study hall is a programming device, then indicates the various forms of organization and control and gives effective ways of administration. There are chapters on the kinds of study supervision possible in the situation, and the pupil behavior patterns likely to be found. With the exception of very short references to the study hall in books on secondary-school administration, and experiential articles in educational periodicals, there is no material on the study hall. The great majority of secondary schools have some form of large group-study facilities, and therefore, *The Study Hall* by Hannah Logasa, should fill a long felt need.

SCHOOLS OF BROOKLINE, MASSACHUSETTS, a few years ago, started courses in school banking which have served as a model for developing similar courses in many institutions. The course is reported to be effective in teaching each pupil to use money intelligently, and to get him into the habit of saving. The general aims of the course are: (1) Systematic habit formation; (2) The control of money uses through budgeting; (3) The control of money reserves through safe investing; (4) The cultivation of a proper sense of values; (5) The creation of interest in making the most of what one has rather than in the ill-satisfying pastime of keeping up with others; and (6) A growing understanding of how money should not be an end in itself, but when wisely used, is a means toward realizing and enjoying the highest and finest things in life.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF BUSINESS EDUCATION is planning a comprehensive national study of business education in secondary schools to be undertaken over a period of several years. A similar study at the collegiate level will probably be undertaken by the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business in cooperation with the American Council on Education. In the field of secondary-school education, almost twenty years have gone by since an authoritative national group of business educators have assembled a large body of representative data about the numerous phases of business education in various types of schools. During these twenty years business education has increasingly become one of the major divisions of secondary schools, and is consequently faced with tremendous adjustments brought about by fundamental changes and requirements in the vast and complex secondary-school system of this country.

A SECONDARY-CURRICULUM WORKSHOP is being planned for six weeks during the summer of 1938 by the committee in charge of the Michigan Study of Secondary-School Curriculum. The plan is for the colleges and universities of the state and the state department to cooperate in providing a staff to work with approximately one hundred and twenty-five teachers and administrators of Michigan secondary schools upon the actual prob-

lems of instruction. It is intended that the participants spend their full time for six weeks intensively studying instructional problems of their choice.

UNION HIGH SCHOOL, CHOWCHILLA, CALIFORNIA, has a Pioneering Outing Club which has taken three camping trips of from three to five days each to Yosemite National Park. Gold dredgers have been visited. Deep-sea fishing excursions have been made to Monterey Bay. The crowning achievement of this unusual organization has been the four weeks spent at summer camp during summer vacation. Dues to the outing club, twenty-five cents a semester, are handled by the club treasurer, a student. The transportation costs are kept as low as possible since school busses and faculty cars are used.

A REPORT CALLING FOR BETTER LIGHTING OF CLASSROOMS was issued recently by the American Standards Association. This report, *American Recommended Practice of School Lighting*, was based on a study sponsored by the Illuminating Engineering Society and American Institute of Architects. It declared many school-children had so little light for their work that they suffered from eyestrain, irritability, and headaches. Even on a bright day children in the darkest part of a classroom may get only five foot-candles, one-twentieth as much light as those near the windows; and on a dark day illumination of the desks may drop as low as one foot-candle. The investigators claimed tests showed children did twenty-eight per cent better in reading when they had a minimum of twenty foot-candles. The report recommended a minimum of fifteen foot-candles for classrooms and offices, and a photoelectric control to turn on lights when illumination falls below the minimum. Because glare is as harmful as dimness, it also advised that glossy finish on furniture and glass tops on tables be eliminated, that pictures be varnished instead of glazed, that desks be shaded from the sun, that indirect lighting be used.

AN EXPERIMENTAL COURSE, "Field Mathematics," was started last year at the Cleveland Heights, Ohio, High School. E. E. Morley, principal of the school, gives the following description of the course: "We place in this experimental section all pupils coming in from the junior high school who were especially weak in their ninth-grade mathematics. The instructor has accumulated a rather imposing array of mathematical equipment including a sextant, a surveyor's transit, surveyor's chains, and other instruments. Once or twice a week this group goes onto the high-school campus with their instructor and surveys portions of the grounds. With the data obtained in this manner, they spent their other periods inside working out practical problems. I should say that there has been enormous interest in this course. Quite a number of the weaker pupils have developed into stalwart students of mathematics and will transfer into the regular academic mathematics."

NINTH GRADE ENGLISH CLASSES at San Benito County High School, Hollister, California, have been organized around a reading center. Behind this new organization is the belief that reading, writing, and speaking are allied arts. The year's work is a series of basic reading projects, each of which gives rise to an activity project calling for wide reading, writing, and speaking. The usual mechanical skills (spelling, punctuation, paragraph organization, sentence structure, business letters, and the like) are taught as they are needed in conjunction with these reading activity projects. Classrooms have been converted into "studio-laboratories" equipped either with tables and chairs or with movable armchairs. Both subjective teacher evaluation and standardized reading and language usage tests indicate that the studio-laboratory method, using reading as a center, has produced improved pupil performance in all the language arts. Interested teachers and administrators may procure a description of a typical project by sending their request, along with a stamped, self-addressed envelope, to Miss Carol Hovious, San Benito County High School, Hollister, California.

A COURSE ENTITLED "FAMILY ARTS" is offered as a 9A elective at the McKinley Junior High School of Los Angeles. In the senior high school such courses, based on study of children in a nursery-school environment, have been developed with success. The course is conducted as a regular class for study and discussion, but at frequent intervals, the

class is taken to a nearby nursery school to observe. Early in the semester each girl selects a nursery-school child for individual case study. Each girl is also scheduled for two half-days at the nursery school, during which time she receives individual instruction and guidance by the class. Recently Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt talked to the class and complimented the practical work which the class is doing.

MISSISSIPPI, AMONG THE THIRTY-FOUR STATES HAVING PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES, claims credit for: (1) Starting its program on an objective basis with a definite criterion for location, organization, etc., and (2) Locating the institutions accessible to the boys and girls of the rural territory rather than in the larger urban districts. The value of the state's junior college setup is emphasized in a recent survey of the system. The report, after summarizing the state system, makes this comment: "Possibly the federal government could make no better investment for the future security of the nation than to grant subsidies to assure every young man and young woman opportunity to spend two years beyond the high-school level in an institution of the junior college type with a curriculum not copied from the university but adjusted to their own individual abilities and needs, a curriculum designed primarily to train them for social citizenship in American civilization."

IN ORDER TO ADVERTISE THE PINE PULP AND PAPER POSSIBILITIES of Treutlin County, Georgia, paper made from pine trees in that county is being used in the weekly publication of the Soperton High School. Trees for the production of the pulp and paper were cut during the summer by students of the school. A local trucking company hauled them to Savannah without charge. There, Dr. Charles H. Herty, famous scientist, converted them into paper in a special "run" through the Savannah Pine Pulp and Paper Laboratory. The school paper, appropriately enough is named the *Slash Pine Blaze*. Treutlin County takes pride in the fact that it has planted more slash pine trees than any area of similar size in the world.

THE DEAN OF GIRLS IN HIGH SCHOOL is the title of a pamphlet just published by the research committee of the National Association of Deans of Women. The publication explains the function of guidance by the dean as (1) the "study of individuals," (2) "to mobilize resources in the school, home, and community" so students can utilize them, and (3) "to assist individual students." Specific duties of the dean are enumerated and explained. The eight duties included are: (1) Academic or educational guidance, (2) Social guidance, (3) Spiritual and esthetic guidance, (4) Vocational guidance, (5) Personal guidance, (6) Curriculum guidance, (7) In service training of teachers, and (8) Coördination.

TENTATIVE PLANS FOR A PART-TIME VOCATIONAL PROGRAM in the high school of Madison, South Dakota, for next year have been approved by the board of education. The plan makes it possible for the students to spend half time in school and half time in actually learning a trade. The work is planned by the high-school coördinator and the employer. The students receive no pay for this type of work, but are given special training and supervision by both the coördinator and employer. The possible trades and industries in which such a program can be carried on in Madison will be surveyed during the second semester. The employers will then be contacted, and a call issued for students who are interested in this type of education. This is an effort to provide more practical training in the high school, and to give those students who are interested to learn a trade while they are obtaining their high-school education. It is also introduced as an added incentive to get those who have dropped out of school to return and complete their high-school course.

REVOLUTIONARY CHANGES IN EDUCATIONAL BUILDINGS are pointed to by Public Works Administration experts, who have scanned plans for nearly 5,000 schools built with PWA assistance in four years. Indirect lighting and air-conditioned heating systems have been widely installed. Insulated roofs and walls are used increasingly and sound-proofing is installed where finances permit, especially in cafeterias. The old type school bell is being supplanted by electric hall gongs, sirens, and classroom buzzers. Radio and motion picture apparatus are part of the equipment of the newer schools. Schoolroom windows turn inside out.

Desk tops adjust upward like artists' easels to prevent eyestrain and improve posture. School seats are adjustable or form-fitting. Some schools are equipped to give all students shower baths twice weekly by use of horseshoe-shaped spray rooms through which pupils pass in rapid succession. There are more swimming pools with water chemically and light treated. Gymnasiums are combined with auditoriums.

"**THERE ARE TWO BIG THINGS** that educators have to chew on during the next twenty years," according to Harl R. Douglass, new head of the department of education at the University of North Carolina. "The first of these big things is trying to adapt the high school, and to a certain extent the college, to the individuals enrolled in these institutions. Only a small percentage of the students now in high schools can expect to find places in the white-collar jobs. Therefore, we are going to have to develop a new curriculum; it isn't going to be entirely vocational because to-day industry is so organized that one has to learn on the job." In regard to the second, that of teaching practical citizenship, Dr. Douglass says: "We have lost sight of the fact that we educate youngsters for the benefit of society as well as for the benefit of persons being educated. Our program must be directed more and more toward practical citizenship. Unless that is the purpose of public education, you can't justify taxing the wealthy and the childless for public education."

NEW BUILDINGS CALL FOR NEW CURRICULA, Providence's, Rhode Island, school educators believe—so they are now carefully planning new courses to be instituted when classes move to the city's two new high schools. "The new high-school buildings are the answer to the people of Providence to conditions that have been particularly disastrous to boys and girls. The new high schools must do more than train a comparatively few boys and girls for college. They must train all young people of high-school age so that they may be loyal to their families, cooperative in habits and well-informed in economic, political, and other problems; capable of maintaining happy and effective homes for their children; capable of carrying on their vocational activities; able to spend their leisure time profitably; sound in body and mind and interested in and capable of continuing to study all aspects of life and nature," says J. L. Hanley, superintendent of schools.

IN THE HOPE OF TEACHING AMERICANS TO SPEND MORE INTELLIGENTLY, a national center for research and education in consumers' problems is being established at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, through the coöperation of the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, Inc. A year in preparation, the project, which is expected to use the income from \$1,000,000 annually, is thought to be the first systematic and adequately financed attempt to gather and interpret to the public all the available facts on all phases of consumer questions. Intended eventually to enlighten the average person—housewife, school child, or man in the street—in his everyday struggles with budgeting, installment buying, or savings, the new Institute for Consumer Education plans also to emphasize the "long-neglected consumer viewpoint" in our general economic thinking. In so doing it is hoped "to bring a correctional influence on some of the maladjustments of our present economic order." To these ends it will work out school and college courses, pamphlets, and textbooks and ultimately conduct various services for adults, from a consumer's clinic to special radio programs, motion pictures, and magazine articles. The first active teaching experiment will begin next September at Stephens College with the formal opening of the institute under the direction of Dr. John M. Cassells, now professor in the Graduate School of Public Administration at Harvard University. Stephens, accredited as a junior college for women, was selected for the experiment because it is centrally located and because women do most of the purchasing for the average family.

A LARGE PROPORTION OF PUPILS leave high school and drift blindly without jobs or interests, the Regent's study of education in New York has disclosed. The inquiry, according to Dr. Francis T. Spaulding of Harvard University, is expected to result in a program "of definitely planned assistance and guidance to boys and girls between the time they leave school and the time they get an independent foothold in the

adult community." Another need, Dr. Spaulding said, is for a systematic effort to develop "social conscience" among young people. "Vocational maladjustment is complicated by the fact that many pupils just out of high school have no one in whom they have confidence to turn to for advice or assistance. They do not go back to the school; some of them believe that school people do not know enough to help them, others have gained the impression that the school is no longer concerned with them. Their parents have in many cases neither information nor wisdom enough to help them, and they know almost no adults outside of school except their parents. In matters of recreation they are left to their own devices; there is little or no opportunity for them to continue the athletics or dramatics or hobbies in which the school may have tried to interest them. Unsocial if not antisocial behavior crops up among unemployed and part-time employed boys and girls in particular. No change in times is likely to solve this problem through making work opportunities easier to obtain. There seems no way to solve the problem except through clear-sighted recognition that the problem exists, that it is as serious as any educational question now confronting American communities, and that it can be dealt with effectively only through a program of definitely planned assistance and guidance to boys and girls between the time they leave school and the time they get an independent foot-hold in the adult community. Such assistance is not impossible; it is already being given by certain schools, guidance centers, and private organizations here and there in the State."

ALMOST ALL HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS HAVE ONE OR MORE HOBBIES, but the home rather than the school exerts the greatest influence in their development, according to the study made by G. E. Davis of the University of Iowa. He sought to find the general status of hobby interests and their relation to the school program. So he studied questionnaire responses of 2,106 hobbyists of high-school age. Dr. Davis reported that smarter pupils tend to have a greater number of hobby interest than those of less intelligence. The duration of hobby interests, however, is about the same, regardless of intelligence. "Curriculum activities in the schools, especially physical education, English, history, and literature, serve as a definite stimulus to hobby interests. However, extra-curriculum activities are less significant in contributing to such interests than is usually thought to be true." It is the pupil's father and mother who exert the greatest influence in the encouragement of hobbies. Close to this is the influence of associates of the same age.

THE SCHOOL BOARD OF ATLANTA, GEORGIA, is considering numerous requests that all high schools in the city be made co-educational. At present only a few units are open to both boys and girls. D. F. McClatchey, Jr., chairman of a special committee on co-education, has urged that present co-educational units be retained, that any future units be made co-educational, and that the buildings and grounds committee consider the cost of converting the present segregated schools into co-educational units. "If education be defined as the adjustment of the individual to himself, to other people, and to social institutions, segregated schools do not afford to pupils, while they are still in their most impressionable years, a true environment for the operation of the educational process," Mr. McClatchey pointed out.

THE SUMMER CONVENTION THE NEW YORK PROGRAM

General Theme: The Responsibility of Education in Promoting World Citizenship.

HEADQUARTERS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS: HOTEL NEW YORKER

Sunday, June 26, 4:30 P.M.—Vesper Service

Address—Joseph R. Sizoo, Minister of the Collegiate Church of St. Nicholas, New York City.

Monday, June 27, 9:00 A.M.—FIRST GENERAL MORNING SESSION
Addresses of Welcome—

The Hon. Herbert Lehman, Governor of New York.

The Hon. Fiorello H. LaGuardia, Mayor of New York City.

The Hon. Frank P. Graves, State Commissioner of Education.

The Hon. Grover A. Whalen, Director of New York World's Fair 1939, Inc.
"The New York World's Fair."

The Hon. Harold Campbell, Superintendent of Schools, New York City.

"America's Largest City School System."

Response—Emily A. Tarbell, President, Department of Classroom Teachers.

Greetings—

From England—J. Sunter, London, National Union of Teachers of England.

From Canada—E. A. Hardy, Ontario, Treasurer, World Federation of Education Associations.

Address—Caroline S. Woodruff, President of the NEA.

Monday, June 27, 12:00 Noon—STATE MEETINGS

Delegates will meet in hotel headquarters to elect one member to the following committees: Credentials, Resolutions, Necrology. Seventeen states will nominate one person for membership on the Board of Directors.

FIRST SESSION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

MONDAY *Panel Discussion:* "An Effective Guidance Program for the Junior High-School Boy and Girl."

June 27 Chairman: Mr. Hugh S. Smith, Principal of Jefferson Junior High School, Washington, D. C., Director of N.E.A. for District of Columbia.

2:00 P. M. Discussion Leader: Mr. L. Larvie, Director of Educational Research, Mechanics Institute, New York.

North Ballroom Members of the Panel:

Hotel New Yorker Mrs. Hazel Fachet, Guidance Counselor, Alexander Junior High School, Elizabeth, New Jersey.

Miss Mary O'Connor, New Haven, Connecticut.

Miss Gertrude Roberts, President of Classroom Teachers' Association for State of West Virginia.

Mr. V. M. Hardin, Principal of Pipkin and Reed Junior High Schools, Springfield, Missouri.

Mr. Robert Clark, Assistant Supervisor of Schools, Marion County, West Virginia.

Evaluator: Miss Bertie Backus, Principal of Alice Deal Junior High School, Washington, D. C.

MONDAY
June 27
2:00 P. M.
Panel Room
Hotel New Yorker

JUNIOR COLLEGE ADMINISTRATORS
Presiding: Dr. Joseph Roemer, Dean of Junior College, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

WHAT EDUCATES STUDENTS IN LATE ADOLESCENCE

President Constance Warren of Sarah Lawrence College, Bronxville, New York.

HOW ONE JUNIOR COLLEGE SERVES ITS COMMUNITY

President Byron S. Hollinshead of Scranton-Keystone Junior College, LaPlume, Pennsylvania.

Evaluator: Dr. Robert J. Trevorrow, Centenary Junior College, Hackettstown, New Jersey.

Monday, June 27, 5:30 P. M.—TENTH LIFE MEMBERSHIP DINNER
Greetings—Caroline S. Woodruff, President of the NEA.

The Beginning—J. W. Crabtree, Secretary Emeritus, NEA.

The Classroom Teacher—Daisy Lord, Past-President, Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association.

The Viewpoint of a School Teacher from Capitol Hill—Hon. Noah Mason, Member of Congress from Illinois.

The Life and Work of Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford—Jesse H. Newton, Past-President of the National Education Association.

Monday, June 27, 8:00 P. M.—FIRST GENERAL EVENING SESSION
Labor and Industry—Leo Wolman, Research Staff of the National Bureau of Economic Research, New York City.

TUESDAY
June 28
8:15 A. M.
East Room
Fourth Floor
Hotel New Yorker

BREAKFAST CONFERENCE
Sponsors of Chapters of the
NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY
Led by H. V. Church, Secretary
of National Honor Society

Tuesday, June 28, 9:00 A. M.—SECOND GENERAL MORNING SESSION

Section A—Our Children

Intelligence—George Stoddard, Director, Child Welfare Research Station, University of Iowa.

Individual guidance—Edwin A. Lee, Director, National Occupational Conference.

Attitudes—Daniel Prescott, Rutgers University.

Section B—The Part Played by Recreation and Education in World Citizenship.

Recreation—George Hjelte, Superintendent of Playground and Recreation, Los Angeles.

Education—Goodwin Watson, Columbia University.

Section C—The Latest Developments in Radio.

Presented by the National Broadcasting Company.

SECOND SESSION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

JOINT MEETING WITH THE DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS

TUESDAY

June 28

2:00 P. M.

Grand Ballroom
Hotel New Yorker

General Theme: Why Supervision?

Presiding: Mary D. Barnes, Eastern Regional Director.

Panel: Dr. Henry E. Hein, Principal of James Monroe High School, New York City.

Mr. William Hamm, Supervisor of High Schools, New York City.

Mr. Frederick P. Graham, Assistant Superintendent, New York City (for Districts 45 and 46).

Miss Lorene Barnes, Birmingham, Alabama.

Mr. Ray Easley, Denver, Colorado.

Dr. Alonzo Myers, New York University, New York City.

Evaluator: Howard D. White, Assistant Commissioner of Education, New Jersey.

3:00 P. M.

Discussion of the topic will be continued in group meetings.

College Group:

Leaders:

Dr. H. L. Sprague, Montclair Teachers College, Montclair, New Jersey.

Professor Roma Gans, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Secretary:

Miss Dona Boyle, Highland Park, Michigan.

3:00 P. M.
North Ballroom
Hotel New Yorker

3:00 P. M.
Panel Room
Hotel New Yorker

3:00 P. M.
Parlor A
Hotel New Yorker

3:00 P. M.
Grand Ballroom
Hotel New Yorker

3:00 P. M.
(Room to be
announced)
Hotel New Yorker

High-School Group:

Leaders:

Dr. Samuel Patterson, Head of Department of Education, Hunter College, New York City.

Miss Oma Claire Lafferty, Central High School, Charlotte, North Carolina.

Secretary:

Mrs. Eleanor Rowlett, Richmond, Virginia.

Elementary-School Group:

Leaders:

Mr. Frederick N. Westphal, Principal of Public School 23, The Bronx, New York City.

Miss Mary Jordon, Sioux City, Iowa.

Secretary:

Miss Lillie Mae Spangler, Dallas, Texas.

Kindergarten-Primary Group (Joint Session with Kindergarten-Primary Association).

Leaders:

Dr. Willis Sutton, Superintendent of Schools, Atlanta, Georgia

Mr. Robert H. Lane, Los Angeles, California.

Mrs. Harriet Rose Lawyer, Berkeley, California.

Miss Margaret L. Hughes, Bridgeport, Connecticut.

Secretary:

Miss Mary Woods, Erie, Pennsylvania.

Rural Group:

Leaders:

Mr. Carl D. Davis, Registrar, J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois.

Mrs. Grace Ryder, Marshfield School, Marshfield, Massachusetts.

Secretary:

Mrs. Mary H. Prosser, Chittenango, New York.

Tuesday, June 28, 8:00 P. M.—SECOND GENERAL EVENING SESSION

What the Arts Contribute to World Citizenship

Art—By a nationally known artist.

Literature—Pearl S. Buck, author.

Music—By an outstanding leader in this field.

Recognition of States attaining Honor Roll in NEA membership.

Wednesday, June 29, 9:00 A. M.—THIRD GENERAL MORNING SESSION

Section A—A Symposium by Organizations Interested in Education.

Section B—New York City School Pageant—Dramatic and Musical Presentation of the History of Education in New York City. (To be presented also on Monday evening and Tuesday afternoon.)

Section C—Demonstration of Educational Broadcasting—Columbia Broadcasting System.

**THIRD SESSION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**

WEDNESDAY SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL DIVISION

June 29 Presiding: Principal Gustave A. Fiengold
2:00 P. M. of Bulkeley High School, Hartford,
Grand Ballroom Connecticut.

Hotel New Yorker HOW CAN PUBLIC SECONDARY
EDUCATION HELP TO BRING ABOUT
A MORE DESIRABLY STABILIZED
SOCIETY?

Greetings: Dr. Frederic Ernst, Associate
Superintendent of Schools in Charge
of the Junior and Senior High School
Division, New York City.

As a Professor of Education Sees It: Dr.
Will French, Teachers College, Columbia
University.

*As an Investigator of Secondary Schools Sees
It:* Dr. E. D. Grizzell, Professor
of Education, University of Pennsylvania.

As a High-School Principal Sees It: Dr.
Hymen Alpern, Principal, Evander
Childs High School, Bronx, New York.

Evaluator: Dr. Galen Jones, Principal of
High School, Plainfield, New Jersey.

Wednesday, June 29, 8:00 P. M.—THIRD GENERAL EVENING SESSION

Presiding—Caroline S. Woodruff, President of the NEA.

Music by New York City Schools.

Address—Hon. Fiorello H. LaGuardia, Mayor of New York City.

Thursday, June 30, 9:00 A. M.—FOURTH GENERAL MORNING SESSION

Section A—Equal Opportunity for all Children

Section B—Learning Through Seeing

Section C—Problems of American Youth

LUNCHEON SESSION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

THURSDAY

June 30

12:15 P. M.

Grand Ballroom
Hotel New Yorker

Presiding: Principal Paul E. Elicker
of Newton High School, Newton-
ville, Massachusetts, and President
of the Department of Secondary-
School Principals.

Guest Speaker: Cameron Beck of
New York Stock Exchange Insti-
tute: Address, LEADERSHIP
FOR TO-MORROW.

Five-Minute Reports on the Previous
Sessions by the Evaluators.

REFERENDUM ON THE BULLETIN FOR 1938-1939

The Committee on Publications is desirous of ascertaining the attitude of the members of the Department in regard to the THE BULLETIN. If the readers of the THE BULLETIN will check the referendum below and mail this sheet to the Executive Secretary, it will guide the Committee in the publication of the THE BULLETIN for the school year of 1938-1939.

1. Eight issues (October-May) of THE BULLETIN were published during the school year of 1937-1938. Should the numbers of issues for 1938-1939 be: Five , Six , Seven , Eight , Nine , Ten ?
2. The issues were printed one column to the page. Should the number of columns to the page be: One or Two ?
3. The number of pages of the majority of the issues has been sixty-four. Should the number be: 32 , 48 , 64 , 96 ?
4. The length of the articles has ranged from one page to fifteen. Should the number of long articles be: as of 1937-38 , increased , decreased ?

5. The following general divisions have been more or less observed. Should the number of pages devoted to these divisions be:

Administration Supervision Guidance

as in present issues	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
decreased	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
increased	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

General Education Topical Subjects Building Finance

as in present issues	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
increased	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
decreased	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

News Books Committee Reports

as in present issues	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
increased	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
decreased	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. Should the following divisions which have been scanty be given a more prominent place in the issues regularly? Digests of outstanding professional articles in educational magazines: Yes , No ; digests of important articles in non-educational periodicals: Yes , No, .

7. Abstracts of important educational books have been omitted this year. If you think abstracts should be included, please indicate the number you think should appear during the year: One , Two , Three , Four , Five , Six , Seven , Eight ? (These abstracts could be made from the books that rank as the second and third choices each quarter of the Book-of-the-Quarter Club selections.

8. A section devoted to personal news of men in the secondary-school field could be added to THE BULLETIN. Do you favor such a section? Yes , No .

Please fill this referendum sheet and mail to: H. V. Church,
5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago.

Announcing . . .

Your Life in the Making

The Need For Guidance

We live in a world that is baffling enough to adults but even more so to many youths attempting to secure a foothold.

Despite the complexity of the times there are certain central factors in an individual's life which persist today as in earlier generations when the exterior world was simpler. Toward these essentials the Personal Growth Leaflets are directed.

From time to time earlier editions of these leaflets have appeared in the JOURNAL under such titles as *Your Life in the Making*, *Learning to Be a Leader*, and *Your Mind in the Making*. These leaflets are to be revised and issued in a larger, more attractive form than hitherto. The first in the new series is described in the opposite column.

These leaflets may be used in guidance classes, as gifts to members of graduating classes, and in other ways.

Your Life in the Making

The first leaflet in the new series of Personal Growth Leaflets is entitled *Your Life in the Making*.

This leaflet is 3 x 5 inches in size and consists of 16 page units with these page headings, exclusive of cover and introductory pages:

Your Self

Begin Where You Are

Make a Plan

Keep Yourself Fit

Develop Your Skills

Attach Importance to the Family

Make Worthy Friends

Earn Your Own Way

Be Loyal to Your Country

Enjoy Your Life

Hold Fast to Your Ideals

Make Your Influence Count

Keep on Learning

Toward Peace and Happiness

Other leaflets in this series will be published from time to time.

National Education Association:
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.
Washington, D. C.

Please send me _____ copies of YOUR LIFE IN THE MAKING.

I enclose _____

Signed _____

Street _____

City _____ State _____

PRICE: One cent each. No orders accepted for less than 25 copies.
Cash must be sent with orders for \$1.00 or less.

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